

ALASKA

BY
MINER W. BRUCE

HISTORY AND RESOURCES

THE GOLD FIELDS

Routes and Scenery

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UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.



AN ALASKA INDIAN GIRL.

ALASKA
ITS HISTORY AND RESOURCES
GOLD FIELDS
ROUTES AND SCENERY

BY
MINER W. BRUCE

ILLUSTRATED



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INTRODUCTORY.

ALTHOUGH the author cannot undertake within the limits of this volume to deal, in an elaborate way, with the vast and varied resources of Alaska, he is of the opinion that the matter contained in its pages is such as will give the reader an intelligent idea of this great territory, its past and present, and the outlook for its future. The contents will be found reliable, and the information touching the leading industries of the country and its resources, including the great Yukon gold fields, which are now commanding attention, has been prepared with care, and with the view of ensuring the greatest possible accuracy. A more complete reference to the Eskimos of Arctic Alaska and the introduction of domesticated reindeer among them can be found in his report to the Bureau of Education at Washington, and his monograph in the census report of 1890, will furnish further information than is here given upon the southeastern portion of Alaska, both of which may be had free upon application to the respective departments.

Six years spent in Alaska, first in the interest of journalism, and later in other pursuits, have enabled him to present an accurate and truthful account of his observations concerning the developments of the past few years.

The field is large, and already the dawning of great enterprises fills the minds of ambitious projectors. Gold fields are to be opened up, railways built, possibly with a span of communication with the Old World, besides many other projects which will cause the active American brain to vibrate with new vigor. And if the writer can awaken any patriotic sentiment to further and protect the interests of this grand territory, he will be satisfied.

He cannot consistently advise those seeking a place to make a home, or those looking for a new field of labor, to choose Alaska, unless they have some means, and a reasonable amount of stamina, and good health. To any one possessed of these qualifications, he unhesitatingly and unqualifiedly says "Go."

He is in earnest when he says that he believes the next few years will present many opportunities for investment, and for laying a foundation for lucrative business enterprises, and, perhaps, wealth. But if any one expects to acquire these without experiencing the hardships and privations incident to pioneer life, he will be disappointed.

MINER W. BRUCE.

CONTENTS.

CHAPTER I.

HISTORY.

Alaska.—Discovered by Vitus Bering, a Dane, in 1728 — Mt. St. Elias.— Search of the Spaniards.—Capt. Cook — Vancouver.—Purchase of Alaska in 1867.—Origin of Name — Its Geographical Extent.— The Organic Act.— A Prohibition Country.— Efforts to Secure Congressional Action.

CHAPTER II.

TOPOGRAPHY.

Topography of Alaska.— Verdant Islands.— Two Great Natural Divisions.— Numerous Fiords.— Great Rivers.— Immense Valleys.— Lakes and Tundra.— Mountain Peaks and Volcanoes.— Cape Prince of Wales — Diomed Islands.— Shallow Water at Bering Strait.— Railroad Across the Strait.

CHAPTER III.

CLIMATE — AGRICULTURE — FLORA.

Influence of Japan Current.— Precipitation in the Coast Country.— Average Rainfall.— Healthfulness of Alaskan Climate.— Dense Vegetation.— Cultivation of Root Crops.— Cereals and Grasses — Interior as a Stock Raising Country.— Vegetable Life Rapid in the Far North.— Harvest Closely Follows Seed Time.— Experimental Agricultural Stations.

CHAPTER IV.

MINERAL AND TIMBER.

First Discovery of Gold in Southeast Alaska.— The Great Treadwell Mine.— Progress of Mining.— Rich Deposits of Silver and Galena Ore.— Where Free Milling Ore is Found.— Russian Placer Mining in Early Days — A Promising Mining Section.— The Yellow Cedar.— Spruce and Hemlock Abundant.— Timber of the Interior.— Where Bituminous Coal is Found.

CHAPTER V.

FISHERIES.

Immense Salmon Canning Industry — More than One Hundred Varieties of Fish Found in Alaskan Waters.— Capacity of Canneries.— A Cannery Trust.— Salmon Streams Usually Small.— The "River of Life" at Karluk.— Development of Alaska Retarded — Cod and Halibut Fishing.— Immense Schools of Herring.— The Ooljkon or Candle Fish — The Beluga.— The Whale Industry.

CONTENTS.

CHAPTER VI.

ROUTE TO THE YUKON RIVER.

Ty-a, the Head of Steamboat Navigation.—Necessary Supplies for the Trip.—Natives and Miners Pack Supplies — Reduced Cost of Living in the Interior.—Manner of Traveling.—Headwaters of the Yukon.—Cariboo Crossing — Lakes Linderman, Bennett, Marsh and Le Barge — Route to be Followed.—Canyon.—White Horse.—Five Fingers.—Trading Posts at Forty Mile and Fort Cudahy.—The Yukon Flats.—Navigation of the Yukon.

CHAPTER VII.

THE YUKON GOLD FIELDS.

Gold First Discovered on the Yukon.—Three Divisions of the Interior.—Recent Discoveries.—Forty Mile Creek.—Birch Creek.—Climate of the Interior.—Long Winter Vigil.—Largest Nugget Ever Found in Alaska.—Placer Mining in Winter.—Gold Quartz Deposits.—Vicissitudes of the Miners' Life.

CHAPTER VIII.

LAND AND SEA ANIMALS.

Fur Seal Industry.—Seal Rookery.—Hunting the Sea Otter.—Brown and Black Bear.—A Thlinkit Legend.—Home of the Beaver.—The Black, Red, White and Blue Foxes.—The Polar Bear.—Deer, Moose and Other Animals.—Eagles and Humming Birds.—The Feathery Tribe — Vast Resources of Alaska.

CHAPTER IX.

THE TOURIST ROUTE.

From Seattle to Sitka.—The Season for Tourists.—Seattle.—Tacoma.—Port Townsend.—Victoria — Nanaimo.—Seymour Narrows.—Chatham Sound.—First Glimpse of Alaska.—New Metlakatla.—Fort Wrangel.—Wrangel Narrows.—Taku Inlet.—Juneau — Treadwell Mine.—Lynn Canal.—Glacier Bay.—The Silent City.—Grandeur of Fairweather Range.—Peril Strait.—Sitka.—Mt. Edgecombe.—The Far Beyond.

CHAPTER X.

ALASKA INDIANS.

Their Origin.—Quass.—The Totem Pole and Its Significance.—Witchcraft.—Exorcising Evil Spirits.—Cremation Still Practiced.—Shamans or Doctors.—Expert in Carving and Engraving.—The Chilkat Blanket.—Atoning for Murder.—Blackening Faces.—Houses of Natives.

CHAPTER XI.

ESKIMO HABITS AND CUSTOMS.

An Eskimo Dwelling — An Industrious and Patient People.—Primitive Manner of Making Fire. — Slaves to Tobacco.—The Oomiak and Kyak.—Eskimo Rain-Coat.—Tattooing by Women.—Wearing Labrets by

CONTENTS.

Men.—Polygamy.—Athletic Sports.—Dancing Principal Amusement.—Zaksriner, the Contortionist.—The Eskimo Dog.

CHAPTER XII.

REINDEER.

Importation of Reindeer.—Starving Eskimos and Cause for Same.—Dr. Sheldon Jackson Interests Government.—Arctic Alaska a Natural Feeding Ground for Reindeer.—A Boon to the Eskimo.—Habits and Characteristics of the Reindeer.—Manner of Driving.—Reindeer Sledge and Harness.—Reindeer Good Travelers.

CHAPTER XIII.

MISSIONS AND SCHOOLS.

Russian Missionaries Sent to Alaska in 1793.—A Strange Admixture.—Little Progress Made.—Indian Attendance at School Not Encouraged.—Long Neglect of Congress to Provide Civil Government.—Dr. Sheldon Jackson in Charge of Educational Affairs.—Public School System Established.—Indian Industrial Training Schools.—Devotion of Missionaries and Teachers.

CHAPTER XIV.

THE BOUNDARY DISPUTE.

Claim Made by the British Government.—The Treaty Between Russia and England.—Line of Demarkation Clearly Established.—Absurdity of the British Claim.—The Ten Marine League Limit.—Portland Canal as the Eastern Limit.—Language of the Treaty.—Why Great Britain Wants this Strip of Territory.—An Outlet to the Great Interior.—Congress Cannot Afford to Stultify Itself.

ERRATA.

Page 17, third line — Convention should read committee.

Page 18, tenth line — 1891-92 should read 1889-90.

Page 18, sixteenth line -- 1891 should read 1890.

Page 35, seventeenth line — Kakutat should read Yakutat.

Page 115—Dr. Sheldon Jackson first went to Alaska in 1877.

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS.

AN ALASKA INDIAN GIRL,	Frontispiece.
	OPPOSITE PAGE.
KARLUK SAND SPIT AND "RIVER OF LIFE"	40
YUKON MINERS AT SHEEP CAMP,	44
YUKON MINERS SLEDDING OVER ROUTE,	48
YUKON MINERS PACKING OVER ROUTE,	50
YUKON MINERS AND NATIVES PACKING OVER ROUTE,	52
YUKON MINERS AT STONE HOUSE,	54
YUKON MINERS AND NATIVES AT SUMMIT OF CHILKOOT PASS,	56
THE CANYON, YUKON RIVER,	60
FUR SEAL ROOKERY, ST. PAUL ISLAND,	64
KILLING FUR SEAL, ST. PAUL ISLAND,	66
JUNEAU,	72
GRENVILLE CHANNEL ON TOURIST ROUTE,	76
THE GREAT TREADWELL MILL,	78
THE TREADWELL LEDGE,	80
SITKA, AT 10:30 P. M.,	82
FRONT OF MUIR GLACIER,	84
CREVASSE ON TOP OF MUIR GLACIER,	86
THE SILENT CITY,	88
SITKA HARBOR,	92
GREEK CHURCH AT SITKA, EXTERIOR VIEW,	94
GREEK CHURCH AT SITKA, INTERIOR VIEW,	98
SOUTHEASTERN ALASKA INDIANS AND CANOES,	100

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS — CONTINUED.

	OPPOSITE PAGE.
HON. WARREN TRUITT, - - - - -	102
ZAKSRINER, - - - - -	103
ESKIMO BOY, ESKIMO HUT, ESKIMO GIRLS, ESKIMO FAMILY, ESKIMO SPEARING WALRUS, - - -	104
HERD OF REINDEER LYING DOWN, - - - -	108
KING'S ISLAND, NORTH BERING SEA, - - -	112
DR. SHELDON JACKSON, - - - - -	115
HARRISON R. THORNTON, - - - - -	118
HON. CHARLES D. ROGERS, - - - - -	121
NEW METLAKAHTIA, - - - - -	128

LIST OF PEN SKETCHES.

TOTEM POLE, - - - - -	9
RUSSIAN BLOCK HOUSE AT SITKA, - - - -	11
INDIAN CANOES, - - - - -	39
ESKIMO CANOE, - - - - -	44
MINERS HAULING SLEDS, - - - - -	53
A YUKON NUGGET, - - - - -	60
ESKIMO WITH DOGS, - - - - -	62
SEAL, - - - - -	63
SEAL IN WATER, - - - - -	66
BARANOFF CASTLE, - - - - -	93
INDIAN WOMAN, - - - - -	95
INDIAN DOCTOR, - - - - -	99
REINDEER TEAM, - - - - -	113
MAP OF ALASKA, SHOWING ROUTES, DISPUTED BOUNDARY.	

ALASKA.

CHAPTER I.

HISTORY.

ALASKA is the name of all that portion of the northwest extremity of this continent, which, until 1867, was known as Russian America.

It is only a matter of conjecture how long this region would have remained a *terra incognita* had not the Imperial government at St. Petersburg sent Vitus Bering, a Dane by birth, on a voyage of discovery. The year 1728 saw him in command of an expedition whose object was to find, if possible, new lands, and whose course led through the waters east of Siberia until he arrived in the great closed sea that now bears his name.

The object of this expedition does not appear in any degree to have been a desire to contribute to the cause of science; but the prime motives were aggrandizement and to extend the limits of trade.



TOTEM POLE.

During this voyage Bering discovered that the two continents were separated by only a narrow stretch of water at the point now known as Bering strait, and that the coast of the one was plainly visible from the shores of the other. The year following, this intrepid navigator endeavored to find a coast line across the waters to the eastward, but failed in his attempt.

Immediately following this cruise, and for many years after, there were rife rumors, which seemed to gather impetus with each recurring year, aided, doubtless, by Bering's own record of his voyages, that a rich country lay in the "Far Beyond," and so the Russian government was stimulated to persist in its efforts.

In 1741 Bering again set sail with two vessels. Severe weather and heavy fogs caused them to drift apart; one of them attempted a landing at Cook inlet, but the Indians attacked and killed a number of the party, and caused the remainder to put to sea and make their way homeward as fast as possible.

Bering, however, sailed farther eastward, and sighted an island near Cape St. Elias now known as Kayak island. There appears to have been no extended exploration at that time; for, ere long, we are told, Bering also turned the course of his vessel westward, and, being beset by violent storms, was stranded east of the Gulf of Kamtchatka, upon the island which now bears his name; and there shortly after, being overtaken by disease, he died and was buried.

To this fearless explorer belongs the honor of discovering and naming Mt. St. Elias, which, towering 18,000 feet heavenward, stands a weird and grandly beautiful monument to his memory. This snowy shaft marks the southern point of the boundary line separating Southeast Alaska from the great region, extending many hundred miles northward to the frozen ocean, known as Western Alaska; an august sentinel, clad in robes of white, there it stands, forever keeping a silent vigil over the waters of the mighty Pacific.

The Spaniards, in the prosecution of their search for the supposed passage to India, which was the great objective point of their early navigators, were gradually extending their explorations northward from the South American and Mexican coasts. In 1592 Juan de Fuca reached as far north as the strait that now bears his name, and in 1775 we find that Spanish explorers had reached Sitka.

The Russians, in the meantime, had arrived at Unalaska.

Nor had the English forgotten to send representatives to this new field of exploration. Captain Cook, one of the most daring navigators of his time, justly shares with Bering, who preceded him, as does also his young lieutenant, Vancouver, who followed him, the glory and honor of navigating the waters of Bering sea and the North Pacific. It was on his return voyage that Cook was treacherously killed, and, it is believed, cooked and eaten, by the natives on one of the Sandwich islands.

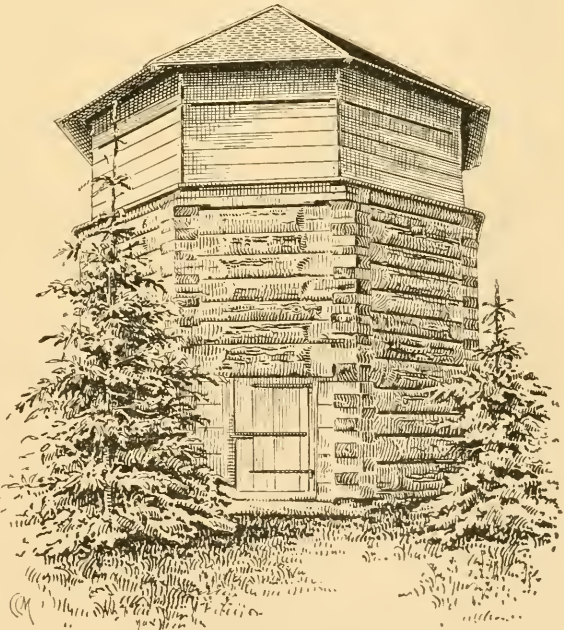
The uncompleted work of Captain Cook fell upon the shoulders of a worthy successor, and the surveys which Vancouver commenced about 1792 covered his name with glory. The remarkable care and ability with which he executed the work begun

by his old commander are, even in this day of improved facilities of maritime science, held in honor; for his charts are closely followed, and in the main found reliable.

From the time of the planting of the Czar's flag upon the soil of this great unknown country its honor was sullied by acts of oppression and cruelty. The Russian-American Fur Company had securely planted its trading posts throughout the new territory, but its rule was characterized by the most barbarous conduct, and it became so notorious that at the expiration of its charter in 1862 the government was forced to deny further franchise.

Three years later, in 1865, the Western Union Telegraph Company proposed to construct a line from San Francisco northward through the Pacific States and Territories to connect with the Russian line at its then terminus, Amoor, Siberia. Many miles of line were built, but the route failed of completion because of the successful laying of the Atlantic cable, and after an expenditure of over \$3,000,000 the enterprise was abandoned.

The path of the proposed route can yet be traced for many miles in the northwest territory by the poles that are standing with wires stretched between them. The outpost of the party engaged in its construction reached a point and made its winter quarters within sixty miles of the extreme western limit of the continent, and the remains of two members of the party lie buried in graves



RUSSIAN BLOCK HOUSE AT SITKA.

dug in the icy shore, two miles east of the United States reindeer station at Port Clarence, Alaska.

The United States purchased Alaska from Russia in 1867, paying the sum of \$7,200,000 for the same. At the time of the purchase this was generally looked upon as an extravagant expenditure; but ridicule at the action of Secretary Seward in this transaction has been changed to a sentiment that credits him with shrewd diplomacy in thus securing this great territory.

Conjecture is never idle and various reasons have been assigned why Russia disposed of her vast possessions on this continent.

It has been said that the United States commenced the negotiation to remunerate Russia, under the guise of purchase, for her friendly attitude toward us during the civil war. Many also believe that Russia sought to dispose of this territory to the United States that England might not, in some way, absorb it, and so strengthen her already powerful hold on this continent. The most reasonable solution of the question however, is, that she wished to be relieved of the care and protection which her subjects so constantly required of her in maintaining the semblance of a government on this continent, and so far removed from her own shores. This view is also strengthened by the fact that Russia at no time from the earliest acquisition of the territory manifested any special interest in its development, and that the motives that actuated her in holding her possessions were largely influenced by the Russian-American Fur Company.

While the name "Alaska" has been a synonym for a bleak, inhospitable waste of ice and snow, its literal interpretation will permit of no such construction. The aboriginal word is "Al-ak-shak," and means a great country.

Covering a country eight hundred miles north and south by about seven hundred east and west, containing six hundred thousand square miles, or an area equal to one-fourth of all the rest of the United States, it seems an empire in itself, and to have received a most appropriate name.

It was Charles Sumner, who, at the time of the purchase, suggested the name "Alaska," and it was as a compliment in return for his warm advocacy of the purchase that Secretary Seward sanctioned the suggestion.

In 1890 the lease of the fur seal islands to the Alaska Commercial Company expired, and at that time Alaska may be said to have emerged from a mantle of gloom and desolation. By this, we mean, that the great barrier in the way of its develop-

ment was removed when this industry passed into other hands.

The day that marked the lowering of the Russian flag at Sitka and the hoisting of the stars and stripes realized the conception of a plan between a few shrewd men who saw in the fur seal industry a great opportunity to make money. For many years, under the Russian regime, these islands had been made to yield a large revenue to those who controlled the business, but it remained for the men who formed this new combination to make it one of the richest private enterprises that ever thrived under this or any other government.

Quietly and before the vastness of the undertaking became known it had passed into the hands of men who knew how to manipulate it, and for a period of twenty years millions of dollars were made and many men became millionaires. Nor did the avarice of the combination stop here. Trading posts were established all along the southern coast, and within a short time upon the banks of every stream of any importance that pours its waters into Bering sea a trading post was stationed, and a sharp, shrewd frontiersman, in the employ of this company, was there to trade his wares to the natives in exchange for furs.

It is reasonable to suppose that a combination which had the foresight and tact to secure from a great government the monopoly of so rich a franchise would also be able to absolutely control all the territory it sought to encompass from the encroachments of competition. During the entire time that the company held possession of this lease it took care that the impressions should prevail that Alaska was good for naught save the production of fur-bearing animals. In doing this it used the strategy which other business corporations would be likely to use to protect their own interests.

But the eyes of an adventurous world are never long blinded, and during the last years in which they controlled this lease the company were charged with every conceivable crime, and were constantly obliged to defend themselves against charges of mistreatment of natives. Investigation, however, always exonerated them, and showed that the complaints were the outgrowth of petty malice on the part of discharged employes or of jealousy among rival fur dealers who were not in the combination.

By the terms of the lease it was liable at any moment to be annulled for neglect or mistreatment of natives, and this would "destroy the goose that laid the golden egg." Knowledge of

the business methods of these men will effectually dispel any suspicion that they would, by word or deed, commit an offense that would destroy the source of so vast a revenue.

But there came a time, when the grip that this company held upon Alaska must be relaxed, and the spring of 1890 saw the lease of the fur seal islands pass into the hands of the North American Commercial Company.

The whole southern coast was invaded by the new combination, which established trading posts at every point that promised business with the natives. With the advent of the new company, a monthly mail route, for seven months of the year, was opened from Sitka to Bering's sea, and postoffices were established at different points, thus affording an opportunity to reach sections of the country that theretofore had been practically unknown.

While the extension of the mail service has not yet resulted in the building up of any considerable towns or villages, the effect has been to open communication between the southern coast of Alaska and the outside world.

The census of 1890 gave the white population at 4,300, but during the last four years these numbers have been largely augmented, and it is safe to say that the white population has been more than doubled. Since that date, also, the mining interests of the territory have largely increased, especially in the interior, and with the discovery of gold in the Yukon region, the country has grown with great rapidity.

The government of Alaska, covering the period from its acquisition to the year 1884, was more of a military form than otherwise. The only officers stationed in the territory were those belonging to the customs service. It was their duty to see that any infringement of the laws, as for instance, smuggling liquor into the territory, or selling the same to Indians or white men, were corrected; and, if necessary, they invoked the aid of the military or naval force.

About the year 1880, the white residents of Southeast Alaska began to discuss the feasibility of securing some sort of civil government for the territory. And in the summer of 1881, a convention was held at Juneau, which resulted in the selection of Mottrom D. Ball as a delegate to Congress. The following winter he appeared in Washington, presented his credentials, and asked to be recognized as a delegate from the territory of Alaska. Further than to attract some attention to the condition of its

affairs, Mr. Ball's visit to Washington was of no great value, for he was not permitted to take his seat. Still the wedge had been applied to the encasement of the difficulties that encompassed Alaska, and the light of intelligent investigation was dawning on her horizon. During the next session of Congress, various bills were introduced looking to the passage of laws that would give to Alaska some semblance of a civil government.

In 1883, Senator Benjamin Harrison introduced a bill, which became a law in the following summer. It is called "The Organic Act of Alaska," and provides for the appointment of a governor, district judge, clerk of the court, marshal, collector, and four United States commissioners, one of whom is to reside in each of the principal towns of the territory, the other officers to reside at Sitka, which, by this act, was made the temporary capital; and all these officers were to be appointed by the President. This act, though very defective, when viewed by the light of the past ten years, was still a step in the direction of a civil government.

Alaska is essentially a prohibition country. It prohibits the cutting of timber, and the exporting of the same out of the territory; it prohibits the killing of fur seal, except under certain restrictions, which give to a company the exclusive control of the same; it prohibits the importation, sale, or manufacture of whisky in the territory, though it can be had in almost any village or hamlet within its borders; and notwithstanding this absolute prohibition, the government has seen fit to collect an internal revenue tax from all persons having it for sale. The Governor is permitted to use his discretion as to whom he will grant a license; it must, however, be to a druggist who will sell the same purely for medical, mechanical and scientific purposes.

The attempt on the part of the government to restrain this traffic in Alaska has proven a farce, because of the wholly inadequate means at the disposal of the officers, whose duty it is to execute the laws.

From the earliest settlement of Russian America down through the years since the purchase by the United States, the liquor question has overshadowed every other, and the sturdy miners and those following other pursuits, and especially the missionary people have been in constant anxiety as to the effect unexecuted liquor laws would have upon the native population. While they

are practically a dead letter, yet there has been greater security felt since the appointment of the present incumbent as district judge, who seems to be able to grapple with the evil, and confine it within the least possible unwholesome limits.

The visit to Alaska of Assistant Secretary of the Treasury Hamlin, last year, was followed this spring by the appearance in the waters of Southeast Alaska of an additional revenue cutter for the purpose of suppressing the smuggling of whisky from British Columbia, and although she patrolled the waters diligently for several weeks, and sent officers ashore for the purpose of intercepting cargoes of liquor known to have been shipped into the territory by small sloops, the vigilance of the search was rewarded by the capture of but a few hundred gallons, and the cutter finally abandoned the effort and returned to Puget Sound.

The nature of the country is such that its many intricate and winding channels afford most favorable opportunities for the smuggling of liquors into the territory, and it is doubtful if any rules could be adopted, even to the regular patrolling of its waters by government vessels that would prevent the traffic.

An idea of the extent to which this business is carried on may be gleaned from the fact that in the little town of Juneau, whose population does not exceed two thousand souls, there are twenty saloons in actual operation.

The impossibility of suppressing this traffic has become so apparent that the best and most respected citizens of the territory unite in the opinion that the only way to regulate the trade is to have a license law. If such were the case the men who pay a license for the privilege of carrying on the business would see that only those who are legally authorized are permitted to engage in the traffic. This would suppress the dangerous element known as "boot-leg" venders, who sell whisky by the pint or quart to the Indians. Many evils which now exist would by this means be effectually remedied, and the government would still retain a source of revenue.

In 1888 the Democrats of Alaska formed a party organization and sent two delegates to the Democratic National Convention. These delegates were permitted to take their seats, and this was the first representation of the territory by her citizens.

In the fall of 1889 the Republicans organized and held a convention at Juneau, and adopted a memorial to be presented to members of Congress. The author of this book who drafted the

memorial was delegated to proceed to Washington and present it to both houses of Congress. He was also chosen a member of the National Republican Convention from Alaska.

The memorial referred to represents clearly the condition of affairs in the territory and is here given in full, as follows:

TO THE REPUBLICAN MEMBERS OF THE UNITED STATES SENATE AND
HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES.

We, the Republicans of Alaska in convention assembled, respectfully represent to your honorable body, that on this the fifth day of November, 1889, a day when the Republicans in the various States and Territories of the Union are contesting for the principles of our great party, we are denied that sacred privilege.

Among the great territories of the west we alone stand a monument representing complete and utter isolation and non-representation. With an area sufficient to form a dozen States, with resources unnumbered and unlimited, with no manner of expressing our just needs or to demand our just rights, with a population of upwards of ten thousand whites and fifty thousand natives, among whom are many intelligent and industrious, we come to you for relief.

With no means of acquiring title to property in which our capital is invested and our labor is expended, we ask the passage of such laws as will afford us relief in this direction.

With many of our people desirous of securing land upon which they can engage in farming, stock raising, dairying and other pursuits of husbandry, we ask that the homestead laws be extended in such manner as will open up this domain for that class of our citizens.

With hundreds of thousands of dollars invested in the fish industry we ask the passage of such laws as will secure titles to their property, and encourage the development of one of our greatest resources, and one which is fast becoming valuable to the nation at large.

With vast forests extending throughout the territory we ask that the present laws relative to the cutting of timber be so modified as to allow it to be used for domestic purposes by the canneries in the packing and exportation of their fish, and by parties actually engaged in manufacturing enterprises within the territory, and the exportation of furniture and other wooden-wares, etc., etc., and manufactured from our native timber.

The judiciary of Alaska is anomalous, lying between and dependent upon the general laws of the United States and the general laws of the State of Oregon, and having no true basis from which it can be interpreted. Therefore we ask that a code of laws be enacted for the District of Alaska, suitable to our wants and circumstances and made applicable to our growing industries and communities.

To day Alaska stands alone among the great territories of the west without a representative upon the floor of Congress, and we deem it unjust that

a longer denial of the rights accorded other portions of our country should be imposed upon us.

In presenting this memorial to your honorable body we humbly ask your unanimous aid in our behalf, and we will ever pray, etc.

C. F. DEPUF, *Chairman*.

C. S. BLACKETT, *Secretary*.

The next Republican National Committee allowed Alaska the same representation as other territories, and the Democratic National Convention followed with a like action.

During the winter of 1891-2, General George W. Garside and Miner W. Bruce labored with both houses of Congress to secure the passage of such laws as were demanded by the memorial; their efforts were so far successful, that the house committee on territories unanimously adopted the bill, which, on the 3d of March of the following year, became a law.

In the fall of 1891, the People's Convention, held at Juneau, selected Captain James Carroll, the well known master of the tourist steamer "Queen," to proceed to Washington, for the purpose of securing legislation. It was largely through his efforts that the bill referred to became a law.

While this bill did not, by any means, meet the needs of the convention, it was thought best to urge its passage, because the case resolved itself, into a choice of this, or nothing.

This law is the only one by which a title to land may be secured in Alaska, except under the general mining laws of the country; by it individuals or companies may purchase land at \$2.50 per acre, for business or manufacturing purposes; and residents of towns may acquire title to their lots.

It is worthy of mention, in connection with Captain Carroll's efforts in behalf of Alaska, that when he arrived in Washington he proposed, should Congress not be disposed to pass the laws needed for the protection of its citizens, that he was ready to purchase the territory of the government, and was also prepared to close the transaction for the sum of \$20,000,000 at any time the government would accept it. This proposition, so characteristic of the man, was looked upon by many in the light of a joke; yet it was meant seriously and had the effect of opening the eyes of many public men to the value of this vast new country.

Alaska has no legislature or officers elected by the people at large, but is still treated as a district, similar, perhaps, to the District of Columbia, where Congress directly governs affairs.

The passage of the Organic act of 1884, brought into the territory, as government officials, many men from different states of the Union, most of whom were men of character and ability. In their official capacities, they have had excellent opportunities to familiarize themselves with the vast richness of the territory, and the close of their terms of office has seen most of them earnest defenders of its interest.

Perhaps the most enthusiastic of its advocates is A. P. Swineford, who was appointed Governor of Alaska, by President Cleveland, during his first term of office. His warm espousal and radical views of the resources of the territory have attracted a great deal of attention to Alaska. He is charged with exaggeration and deceit in his statements of the resources and future possibilities of the country; but the developments of the past few years have demonstrated that his pictures are not overdrawn.

In the fall of 1894, a people's convention was held at Juneau, and a memorial to Congress, similar to the one adopted by the convention of 1889, and which the author of this book also had the honor of drafting, was unanimously passed.

It was suggested, by some of the delegates, to select as representative to Congress Miss Kate Field, whose championship of the territory had been so marked that upon every opportunity offered she urged Congress to do its duty and relieve the inhabitants of their burden. That she has thereby gained the admiration of Alaska's citizens, is proved by this suggestion, but delicacy lest the action be regarded in the light of a burlesque, and the fact that no opportunity was allowed to ascertain if the honor would be accepted, finally caused the suggestion to be abandoned, and Mr. Thomas S. Nowell was unanimously chosen delegate to Congress.

Mr. Nowell's large mining interests in Alaska, and his extensive acquaintance among members of Congress and officials in Washington, placed him in excellent position to command respect and wield influence; and, but, for the fact that the session was a short one, Alaska would, in all probability, have been recognized and Mr. Nowell seated as its first delegate.

The enormous growth of interest in Alaskan affairs during the past four years, is proved by the call from officials at Washington for all possible information from that quarter, and that this interest is shared by the Secretary of the Interior, is demon-

strated by the request sent to Governor Sheakely to be present in Washington, during this session. It was fondly hoped that some legislation would be effected by this Congress, still, it is not surprising, that Alaska should suffer equally with other States and Territories in being overshadowed by the many important matters that have consumed the time of that august body.

Only those who have had experience in the matter can realize the difficulty of securing legislation for Alaska. She labors under the exceptional disadvantage of having no one to whom she has a right to appeal for aid.

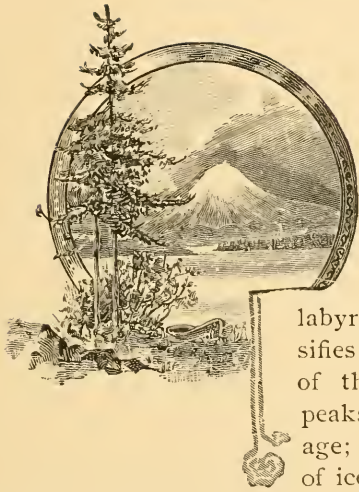
The members of Congress from other States and Territories have their own constituencies to look after; and the demands upon their time by legitimate claimants are so many and so great that they can hardly be expected to labor for the interests of a country so remote and of which they know so little.

The next few years must bring about great changes in the governmental affairs of Alaska. In all probability the great section known as Southeast Alaska will become a Territory as soon as there shall be a sufficient number of people within its limits to bring about such result. At present there is a widespread feeling among the residents opposed to territorial organization, on account of a dread of taxes, and the expenses attendant upon the maintaining a form of government. But these objections will melt away with the onward rush of civilization.



CHAPTER II.

TOPOGRAPHY.



THE elements of grandeur, weirdness, solemnity and vastness enter, in a large degree, into a topographical description of Alaska. Its many interesting features hold the mind spellbound with awe, in their presence, and fill the memory with undying wonder. The labyrinth of verdant islands that diversifies the coast line; the swelling plains of the interior; gigantic mountain peaks, snow-covered and hoary with age; the mighty glaciers—vast rivers of ice, which for centuries have slowly forged their way to the abyss of the ocean, and which, before many more centuries will have entirely disappeared, so that future ages will know them only by the records of their awful sublimity; the active volcanoes rearing their smoking, often fiery, crests among the mountain peaks; and the valleys, great and small, rich in natural resources of many kinds, which intersect the interior country in all directions.

Alaska is naturally divided into two great divisions—South-east and Western Alaska. Mt. St. Elias marks the dividing line between Western Alaska and Southeast Alaska, at 141 degrees west longitude, running north from this point to the Arctic ocean. For a number of years it was supposed that Mt. St. Elias was within American territory, but late surveys show most of its base to be just over the line in the Canadian Dominion.

Many of the islands in the inland, or tourist route, have the appearance of half-submerged mountains, and water two hundred

fathoms deep is often found, where the breadth of the channel can be almost spanned, by the length of the ship.

Fiords are numerous, some of them winding in serpentine fashion a distance of twenty or more miles, into the islands or mainland. The great rivers of the interior drain immense valleys, with mountain ranges everywhere visible. Lakes are abundant, often surrounded by tundra or swamps, very frequently impenetrable, covered with brush, rank grasses, and other vegetation. After the interior is reached—and by this is meant after the coast mountains are crossed, in many places, only twenty or thirty miles from the coast—the soft earth and luxuriant vegetation of the coast country give place to frozen ground, and lichens and mosses on the mountain sides and in the valleys. But though the vast plains of the interior are completely within the grasp of the ice king, for eight months of the year, with the advent of the long days of summer water runs, flowers bloom, and grasses spring into life as if by magic, and their growth is at once luxuriant and rapid, even though in many places the soil is never thawed beyond a few inches below the surface.

In the far north at St. Michaels, and at Point Barrow, wells have been dug through sixty feet of solid ice, and the same condition has been noted on the Yukon, at Forty Mile.

The Aleutian islands, stretching far out into the North Pacific, surrounded by rocks scarred and battered for ages, by the boisterous waves, are without trees, but they are thickly covered with a low growth of luxuriant vegetation. Between the mountains and the sea are small plateaus or prairies, with soil enriched by vegetable mould, and suitable for domestic gardening. Grass grows abundantly here, sometimes to a height of six feet. It is cured by the natives, to feed a few small Siberian cattle, and they also braid it into useful and often ornamental articles, such as baskets, hats and mats. The growth of this grass is so abundant and prolific that investigators have predicted that this Aleutian country will yet furnish the Pacific coast with its best butter and cheese; while botanists agree that the southern coast country of Alaska abounds in grasses, and has a climate, perhaps, as well adapted for haying as the coast of Oregon.

The Russians esteem Cook inlet, which lies to the north of Kodiak, to be the pleasantest portion of Alaska in the summer season. Its skies are nearly always bright, as stretching far in-

land in a northeasterly direction it is out of the region of fogs, which so frequently prevail on the coast. Its shores are pleasant, being well wooded and watered. Gold has been found in large quantities, and recent reports tell of still richer placer deposits having been discovered on the inlet itself and on the Kaknu river, which debouches into Cook inlet.

The guiding landmarks of Alaska may be said to be its grand mountains, volcanic peaks and mammoth glaciers. Mt. St. Elias lifts its ermine top over 18,000 feet above the level of the sea. In the distance it seems to have its base on the very shore of the ocean, although in reality sixty miles distant. From the south side of Mt. St. Elias eleven glaciers slowly make their way oceanward, one of them, named Agassiz glacier, being estimated to be twenty miles in width and fifty in length, covering an area of one thousand square miles.

Mt. Fairweather, one hundred and fifty miles south of Mt. St. Elias, is about 15,500 feet high; Mt. Crillon, 15,000; Mt. Perouse, 14,300; and Mt. Wrangell is over 19,000.

There are thirty or more volcanoes in Alaska, six or eight of which are in an active state of eruption. Shishaldin, which is 9,000 feet high, is certainly burning, and its smoke may always be seen in clear weather. It is situated on Unimak island near the pass of the same name, usually followed by vessels in entering Bering sea. Pavlof, about one hundred miles to the eastward, is another smoking mountain; the glow from its crater may be seen reflected against the heavens. Mt. Makushin, at the eastern extremity of Unalaska island, is about 5,500 feet in height, and gives evidence of being more or less active; while the tops of Pogrumnoi and Shishaldin, on Unimak island, serve as beacons at night or in foggy weather for vessels on their way into Bering sea, as they can be seen distinctly, towering above the dense atmosphere. Akutan island has a smoking volcano, 4,000 feet high; and on Atka island there are several volcanoes, from 3,000 to 4,000 feet in height, which occasionally emit smoke.

Mt. Logan, the highest known mountain in North America, unless it may be Mt. Wrangell, has an elevation of 19,000 feet. Some surveyors claim that Wrangell is a loftier peak than Logan, but its exact height is unknown. Wrangell is clearly within Alaska, but Logan is a few miles east of the line, in Canadian territory.

Hot mineral springs abound all over the various island groups of Alaska, especially those stretching from the Alaskan peninsula westward towards Asia. About fifteen miles south of Sitka, hot springs are also found, which possess great curative properties. Consumption, scrofula, syphilitic diseases and rheumatism are common among the aborigines, consumption being the most fatal ; while scrofula prevails to a great extent, aggravated, it is believed, by an almost exclusive fish diet and by rank uncleanness. Syphilitic diseases, the terrible heritage left these natives, as the result of contact with sailors in the early days, and augmented by uncleanly habits, are likewise common. These diseases are said to yield readily to the treatment afforded by these natural health restorers, the hot springs, and it is claimed they can, to all appearances, be entirely eradicated from the system after a few weeks bathing and drinking the waters of these springs. They all possess similar properties, being strongly impregnated with iron, sulphur, and magnesia.

During the Russian occupancy, bath houses were built at Sitka springs, and bathing tanks constructed, and natives and whites from this portion of the territory frequently visited them.

Hot springs are also found near Loring, and others at Hoonah, these being more patronized, because they are nearer the settled portion of the country.

The aspect of the country about Bering strait is mountainous, but not extremely precipitous. From Cape Prince of Wales, another continent, Asia, may be seen, for the Siberian coast is plainly visible. Citizens of the United States, and the subjects of the Czar of all the Russias, metaphorically speaking, might stand on their respective shores, and clasp hands across the narrow channel called Bering strait, which connects the waters of the Arctic ocean with Bering sea.

This strait is but forty-eight miles wide, and the narrow passage is partially filled by Little and Big Diomedé islands near the middle of the strait. The islands are only two miles apart, and the line of demarcation between Alaska and Siberia runs midway between them. The shallow water of Bering strait, averaging only about twenty-seven fathoms in depth, and the short distance between the two continents, give rise to interesting speculation concerning the connecting of the eastern and western hemispheres by a railroad which would, literally, girdle the world. Fancy

leaving New York by special limited train, traversing the North American continent longitudinally to the great Yukon valley, then westward to Bering strait, crossing it with the trans-Siberian railway as a connection, and speeding on to St. Petersburg, Paris, London, etc., and this is within the realm of possibility. Engineering skill has made rapid progress within a decade, and who shall say what the genius of man aided by wonderful inventions and electricity will accomplish!

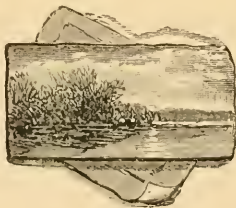
It will be a physical impossibility to span Bering strait with a bridge, owing to the swift current and the vast quantities of ice which, in winter, are continually flowing through, and which would speedily demolish such a structure. It may be possible, however, that the strait could be tunneled, but it is here suggested—as more practicable—that it could be filled in with rock, allowing sufficient openings for the waters to flow through, and for vessels to pass, thus forming an adamantine roadway between the extreme west and east, as represented by the United States and Siberia.

The mountains that mark the westernmost point of the continent at Cape Prince of Wales are rocky and barren, the ledges standing upon high pillars, with shattered sides, and uneven surfaces. Towards the base, facing Bering strait, the slope is gradual, extending into a low sandy beach reaching out into the strait a mile or more and then bearing to the north. Endless quantities of rock could be taken from these mountains of solid stone and dumped into the strait, until a roadway, similar to the great wall of China, but deeper, and broader, and stronger, would rise from the bottom of the shallow waters. The expense, it is true, would be enormous—and no attempt is here made to discuss scientific difficulties in the way—but let it be remembered that all great engineering projects have been first ridiculed and denounced as chimerical, as, witness—the Suez canal, Nicaragua canal, the Panama canal, and other great triumphs of engineering skill. The practicability of the Panama canal, in which the French people invested tens of millions of dollars, though yet uncompleted, has been fully demonstrated. To carry so gigantic an enterprise to a successful completion unlimited capital and labor would be required. In the matter of labor, if white men could not be found, twenty-five thousand Eskimos, who are indefatigable workers, could be utilized. And should the enter-

prise be undertaken jointly, by the governments of the United States and Russia, the latter would, no doubt, make use of her convicts, as she is now doing in the construction of the trans-Siberian railroad.

Alaska offers many inducements for railroad building. The physical contour of the country, especially in the interior, presents few obstacles, and the numerous valleys afford natural avenues for the construction of these great highways. The rich gold fields, the mighty plains of the Yukon and its many tributaries, will yet hear the snorting of the iron horse, and the vast coal and gold fields, mountains of silver and iron ore, as well as many other natural resources of this country, will be opened up by the enterprise of the twentieth century. The indomitable energy and power of man will yet lay this vast country under tribute and cause it to yield a golden harvest.

An all rail route from the new world to the old, across Bering strait, would be the connecting link to weld the nations together, in the development of commerce and of the untold riches of little known portions of the two vast continents. That this would be a mammoth undertaking, is not denied, but its possibility cannot be questioned. It is not all fanciful—"the unsubstantial pageant of a dream"—but is rather the living, actual reality, that before another quarter of a century has rolled away a great international highway will be opened up and the nations of the world will become its patrons.



CHAPTER III.

CLIMATE AND AGRICULTURE.

THE beneficent Japan current influences the whole country, even as far north as the Kuskoquim river, and has the effect of soothing the climate of the north Bering sea coast.

Precipitation is very great in the southern coast country. The air is cool during the pleasantest time of the year, in the long summer days when the sun shines most. As a rule, it is clear but few days in the year; usually, however, in June and July, the sun pierces the deep and heavy clouds that settle over the mountains, and brightens up the landscape. When the sun is obscured, it is liable to rain for days, and sometimes for two or three weeks at a time. But rains here are not so cold and chilly, as in most countries, where cloudy or rainy weather prevails for long periods, and, as a rule, are warm and soft.

The average rainfall along the coast is not far short of one hundred inches a year, and at Unalaska, in 1884, one hundred and fifty-five inches was recorded.

The fall of snow in the coast country is also considerable. At times it covers the earth to a depth of three feet on a level, but is usually damp, and a snow storm is apt to turn into rain in a few hours, causing the huge bank and drifts to disappear. The mercury rarely falls to zero in any part of the southern coast country, it is more likely to register above freezing point than below during the greater part of the winter.

The climate is much dryer in the interior, rain occurring as a rule, only in the spring and summer. In severe showers it is sometimes accompanied by fierce thunder and lightning, which rarely is known on the coast.

Probably no other section of this continent presents such a diversity of climate as Alaska. The heat of the summer in the interior is sometimes intense, often registering over one hundred degrees in the shade, and it has been known to burst a spirit thermometer after graduating up to one hundred and twenty.

Summer heat, however, is quickly followed by winter cold, and the mercury will fall to fifty or sixty degrees below zero. On one occasion, at Fort Yukon, it was known to have reached seventy degrees below zero. The winter begins about the first of October and lasts until the first of June. The mean temperature during the months of December, January, and February, is about twenty-four degrees below zero. This cold weather and long period of winter is felt to within a very few miles of the coast, or from the point where the mountains are crossed.

Notwithstanding the marked variations in the climate, Alaska is essentially a healthy country. The only prevailing diseases are those of a bronchial nature, and in most cases these troubles can be directly traced to imprudent exposure.

The snow of the interior partakes much of the character of frost, sifting slowly down in intensely cold weather until it lies several inches deep, light and fluffy; but at times, in warm weather, it thaws and settles into a hard crust, affording excellent surface for sledding.

The great precipitation and humidity of the atmosphere in Southern Alaska cause the entire coast region to be clothed in a mantle of perennial green. Vegetation is dense, and the forests magnificent. The soil is rich, though in the heavily timbered section, it is shallow; and from the most eastern point of the territory to Kadiak, root crops are easily grown. Radishes, lettuce, carrots, onions, cauliflower, peas, turnips, cabbage, beets, celery and potatoes, yield prolifically. On one-sixth of an acre at Sitka, eighty bushels of potatoes have been raised. It was, however, a plot of ground that had been formerly used by the Russians as a garden and was carefully prepared. Strawberries grow with the greatest spontaneity, and have a flavor equal to those of southern latitudes. Some extensive fields of strawberries are found under the very shadow of the glaciers, both at Glacier bay and at Yakutat. Potatoes are grown in most of the native villages along the coast country. No system of planting is followed, the rule being simply to bury a whole potato in the ground and when the vines appear above the surface thin out if necessary; dirt is then heaped in a soft hill with but little of the care given this crop by practical farmers. The potatoes grown here have an excellent flavor, but are inclined to be watery. The cultivation of the soil by the natives is of the most primitive character, and that by the whites is carelessly done.

Oats, barley, and wheat have been grown on the Stikeen river, where the climate is colder and dryer. The precipitation on the coast is so great that it is doubtful if cereals could mature, except in a dry season. They grow very rapidly, but run largely to stock, and before they can mature, are cut down by frosts or mould through dampness. Silos and ensilage would undoubtedly be a success here. Cattle prefer the hay of the country to that imported, and if the two are fed to them mixed, they will separate the native hay and eat it first.

As soon as the snow has disappeared in the spring, masses of herbage spring into life and quickly blossom. Fruits rapidly mature and harvest closely follows seed time. It is a surprising fact that not only on the coast, but also in the interior, small fruits, especially raspberries, blueberries, cranberries and red currants everywhere abound. When the sun shines continually for twenty-four hours vegetable life is extremely rapid, notwithstanding the shortness of the season.

The capability of the soil of Alaska under a proper system of cultivation, both on the coast and in the interior, remains yet to be demonstrated. It is hoped that agricultural experimental stations will be established by the government, in the different parts of the territory, say—one at Chilkat, one at Kadiak, and one in the interior. If this is done intelligent and practical experiments with the various grains, roots, and grasses suitable to these latitudes can be made. In the spring of 1894, the author had the honor of appearing before the house committee on agriculture in support of establishing stations as above; and a bill appropriating fifteen thousand dollars for the purpose was unanimously reported, but it met with the usual fate of Alaskan measures—was never reached on the calendar. From the climatic influences known to exist, and the good results achieved by the crude, tentative experiments already made, one can fairly infer that the conditions are favorable for certain kinds of crops which only intelligent experimenting will determine.

Stock raising in Alaska, also, must first be investigated. Along the coast the chilly air of fall and winter is very trying, and cold rains, snow, sleet and severe winds are all encountered. Experiments, heretofore made, have not proved entirely satisfactory. Foot rot in sheep has interfered with this industry, to some extent, but experienced stockmen, familiar with the interior of

the territory, are confident that it presents excellent opportunities for the successful raising of cattle; and believe it is possible that the great interior may, within a very few years, become a feeding ground for tens of thousands of sheep and cattle.

The tundra moss-covered regions, suitable for reindeer grazing, prevail throughout the whole western coast country, and, in the interior, for many miles nutritious grass and moss are everywhere found in abundance.



CHAPTER IV.

MINERAL AND TIMBER.

THE first discovery of gold in Southeast Alaska was near Sitka, in the year 1873. It excited much interest in the small settlements throughout the southeastern coast, and prospecting soon commenced in earnest. Miners from the old Cassiar region in British Columbia, and the northwest territory, began to push forward into Alaska, and, in the summer of 1880, gold was discovered in the vicinity of Juneau. From this date may be reckoned the developments that have reached such large proportions and drawn the attention of the whole mining interests in America to our Alaska possessions.

The little Indian settlement at the head of Gastineau channel, which had rarely seen a white man, was soon enlivened by the tents and rude huts of the miners, which were scattered along the coast for many miles; and back into the interior went prospectors, singly, and in parties of three or more, in search of gold, as very strong indications led them to believe, it lay somewhere in this vicinity.

Joseph Juneau was the first man to demonstrate the existence of gold in this district in any considerable quantities. During the early days of the settlement there seemed a disposition to bestow honor upon one Richard Harris, a partner of Juneau, by naming the first mining town after him. So the town was first called Harrisburg, subsequently named Rockwell, in honor of one of the officers of the United States steamer Jamestown, then located at Sitka; but the inhabitants finally determined to give it the name Juneau, which it now bears.

Gold creek pours its waters down through the deep ravines and gorges that extend back from Juneau for four or five miles. It is impossible to estimate the yield of gold, but it is safe to say that it reached many thousands of dollars. While it was not claimed that any great amount was taken out by one individual, it is a fact that many men found diggings which paid them hand-

somely, and effectually demonstrated that they were in the heart of a rich gold region.

About the time of the first gold excitement at Juneau, the report was circulated that gold had been found on the top of a mountain about two miles across the bay, and it was learned that a miner, known in camp by the name of "French Pete," had staked off a claim. Mr. John Treadwell was at this time prospecting in the region, and investigated this location; being convinced that it would prove good property, he purchased it for the sum of \$400. By untiring energy, and persistent efforts, he developed the property, forging his way almost inch by inch. He erected first a five stamp mill. The result was so promising that he found little trouble in organizing a company with capital sufficient to erect a one hundred and twenty stamp mill, which, seven years after the first discovery, was enlarged to two hundred and forty stamps, and the largest mill in the world was soon pounding out gold. For the past seven years there has hardly been a break in the rattle of the machinery or the booming of the heavy charges of dynamite, as they are echoed and re-echoed over the channel to the town of Juneau. Day and night during this whole period, with the exception of the Fourth of July and Christmas, and, perhaps, one or two other days in the year, it has never been known to stop. In calling this the greatest mill in the world, we mean that it is fully equipped in every department pertaining to a well regulated and efficient working property; and although the ore is known as very low grade, estimated by some as yielding only \$1.85 in bullion to the ton of ore, the gold output from this mine since the full two hundred and forty stamps have been in operation has reached the sum of \$70,000 or \$80,000 per month.

While the discovery of this rich ledge awakened a widespread interest in Alaska, it was also the means of effecting the organization of a company which perpetrated a swindle aggregating several hundred thousand dollars. A claim adjoining the great Treadwell mine, and represented to be fully as promising, was located, after a supposed thorough and careful system of prospecting. German and English capitalists were induced to take hold of it; tunnels were run, machinery erected, and everything made ready to start the operation of a huge plant, when it was discovered that the claim had been "salted." Work stopped at

once, and the mining world was startled by the announcement that the Bear's Nest mine in Alaska was a gigantic swindle. This threw cold water upon the mining development of Alaska for a period of three or four years, and no matter how promising a claim it could not be negotiated at any price. Capitalists looking for investments were afraid to venture into Alaska. The rumor, too, became current that the Treadwell mine was a mere "blowout" or pocket, where, by a singular freak of nature, a lot of gold had been dumped in one huge pile, and that it would never be found in paying quantities anywhere else in the country.

During this time, however, a number of men who had followed mining camps from the earliest days of California up through Oregon, into the Cariboo and Cassiar regions of British Columbia, finally drifted into Alaska, and believed they were yet within the mineral belt. Their entire energy and every dollar they could command were expended in the development of mining claims that were staked out in many places along the coast of Southeastern Alaska, and the result of their work has shown that their confidence was not misplaced. Without entering into a detailed or tedious enumeration of the different camps or claims which have been prospected successfully, it is sufficient to say that all through the Southeastern Alaska coast to the end of the inland channel or tourist route, at the very gates of the Pacific ocean, wherein lies America's Venice, gold and rich deposits of silver and galena ore are found. To the energy and steadfast belief of a few of the old settlers in Sitka is due in no small degree the credit of establishing the fact that the gold belt of California and the Western Territories was not riven asunder when it reached the coast range; and when the mountains that tower behind the capital at Sitka are made to yield up the ore that lies buried in their innermost recesses, we believe it will prove to be as rich as any yet discovered in this country.

In several places on Prince of Wales island, and north on Annette island, a number of excellent locations have been found where free gold is scattered among the rocks. Within the past few months prospectors have located claims, the assays of which indicate large and rich deposits of gold. The prospectors for silver, four or five years ago, met with good success, but on account of the depreciation in value of this metal the search for it has been almost entirely abandoned.

Passing north towards Juneau, at Sum Dum, is located the Bald Eagle mining claim, which after being thoroughly prospected was sold a few months ago for many thousands of dollars. The present season is seeing the erection of a ten-stamp mill at this place; the owners feel fully justified in the expenditure because the ore shipments from this mine to the Puget Sound smelting works promise rich results. The ore is valued at upwards of one hundred dollars per ton. Northward, within four miles of Juneau, at Sheep creek, the Silver Queen mine is located and a ten-stamp mill in operation. Adjoining, claims have, during the past four years, been prospected, until the probabilities are that this will be the seat of active and extended operations the coming year. Within a radius of four miles of Juneau, besides the great Treadwell mine, there are eight mills in operation and the output is such as to encourage the companies in extended and most active prosecution in the work of development.

Gold creek, which comes down through the mountains north of Juneau, and flows into the bay in a rushing torrent of water, drains about four miles of country, and upon both sides the rugged mountains seems to be interwoven by rich ledges of gold quartz. Six stamp mills are constantly at work eight months of the year, and the coming season will see the beginning of development by the erection of mills on several other claims. A number of placer claims have been successfully operated there for a number of years, and at what is known as the "basin" many thousands of dollars have been spent in getting ready to operate by hydraulic machinery what promises to be valuable property.

Across the bay adjoining the great Treadwell mine, at what is known as the Mexico mine, a sixty-stamp mill is in operation which will be enlarged by an addition of sixty more this coming season. To the east of that is the Ready Bullion, and a two hundred-stamp mill will be operated the coming year; these two claims are owned or controlled by the company that owns the great Treadwell mine.

Towards Lynn canal, sixty miles from Juneau, the Berner's Bay mining property shows indications that the richness and quantity of this ore will prove as great as any yet found. On Admiralty island, at Funta bay, also, is a group of what will probably prove one of the richest mining camps in the whole of Southeast Alaska. A number of ledges are found that contain

rich ore and rock, which, when pounded out from any of these ledges, yield in every instance exceptionally rich deposits of gold in the bottom of the pan.

At Glacier bay there are many strong indications of silver, the veins being easily traced along the sides of the mountains, which are entirely nude of vegetation. On Willoughby island, in particular, there are rich galena deposits, and up to the time of the depreciation of silver extensive preparations were made to develop several of these properties. At the extreme end of Glacier bay are very rich deposits, in which native silver has been found among galena. The owners are carefully doing their assessment work each year and waiting for silver to appreciate so as to resume operations.

Passing outside of the waters of the inland canal into the North Pacific, rich mineral indications are found along the coast at Lituya bay. Rich deposits of ruby and black sand stretch along the coast for many miles towards Kakutat. The quality of the gold found in this region is fine, but amalgamates readily, and is easily saved by careful sluicing. Although there has been considerable work in this region at placer mining during the past four or five years, there seems to be quite an extensive range of country yet unworked, or, for that matter, unprospected. Practical miners who have investigated this portion of the coast believe that a rich and extensive mining section will here be opened up. There is no doubt that gold exists in Cook inlet, but to what extent remains to be determined.

The early Russian settlers are known to have worked at placer mining at Cook inlet, but as yet prospecting to any great extent has not been done in this region.

For the past four or five years prospecting has been carried on at Unga, on the island of that name, and the work has been thorough and extensive. A ten stamp mill was first erected, and last year the capacity increased to forty stamps, and the Alaska Commercial Company, who own the property, feel satisfied that they have a mine which it will take many years to exhaust, and that will prove a paying investment. This section of Alaska has every indication of rich mineral deposits, but when it is considered that the white settlements are very scarce, the means of communication with the outside world very uncertain, and the cost of provisions and supplies very expensive, it is not to be

wondered that so little has been done and so little known of the resources of this vast country.

At Golofnin bay, Norton sound, some ten years ago, indications of rich galena deposits were found. The discoverer returned to San Francisco with a few samples of the ore, the assay of which proved to be very rich. A schooner was fitted out and sent there the following season, and in due time was loaded down with the ore; but soon after leaving the bay a severe storm was encountered, and when last seen by the natives on shore she was laboring in a heavy sea, and nothing more was ever heard of her. Subsequently another vessel was fitted out and considerable ore was taken to San Francisco, which proved so rich that a company was organized and in 1891-2 \$60,000 was expended on the mine. Another large quantity of ore was shipped to San Francisco, which proved to be as rich as any heretofore taken from this mine, but on account of difficulty among the members of the company work on the property was abandoned. It is understood, however, that the quality and quantity of ore found here are sufficient to pay a handsome profit for its shipment to San Francisco, even at the present price of this metal. It is expected the company will resume operations on an extensive scale this coming season.

The only indications of mineral to any extent north of this point are those reported by Lieutenant Stoney, who spent two or three years in the region of Kotzebue sound some years ago; he having found gold along the Selawik and Buckland rivers. Last summer the author saw an Eskimo near Fort Morton who had in his possession fully an ounce of course gold, tied up in seal skin, which he had found on the Kowak river.

Southeastern Alaska is well timbered, the prevailing varieties being spruce and hemlock, red and yellow cedar. The spruce and hemlock found here are usually of large size, often a hundred feet high and six and eight feet in diameter. The yellow cedar is a beautiful wood, admitting high polish, and is especially adapted for manufacture of furniture. It may easily take the place of mahogany and other tropical and sub-tropical woods. The yellow cedar grows many feet in height, straight and clear, without any defect whatsoever. The wood, when polished, presents a beautiful yellowish hue and is hard and compact, though easily worked. Little is known of the extent of the yellow cedar, but no doubt explorations will discover considerable areas

of this valuable wood. From Sitka westward, the forests become scrubby and the timber small in size, but alder and willow are found in many places. The timber line extends to a height of about fifteen hundred feet. The timber along the lower portion of the Yukon is composed principally of willow, alder and cottonwood. Towards Norton sound, it grows to a fair size. Spruce is also found, as a rule, on most streams emptying into the Yukon river and Bering's sea. The rivers entering the Arctic as far north as latitude sixty-seven degrees are more or less timbered with the same variety. Along Wood river there are some fine groves of large spruce timber, and back in the interior, and along the banks of the rivers and on level stretches of country, fir timber is also found to considerable extent. Dwarf-spruce, cottonwood, alder and willow, are also found in the Nushagak and Kuskoquim regions. The willow usually found along the coast west of Mt. St. Elias is scrubby, but in the moraines of that mountain and along the delta of the Copper river it grows to a height of fifteen or twenty feet. In the vicinity of the Noatak river, in latitude sixty-seven degrees north, spruce, birch and cottonwood are found of a stunted growth, fit only for fire wood and the construction of log houses.

In the Yukon country, from Five Fingers all the way to Koserefski mission, on the Yukon, the timber growing along the banks is principally willow, alder and spruce, the latter being the prevailing variety. It is generally scrubby but many good sized trees are found. The islands in the river from Five Fingers to the mouth of the Yukon are generally well timbered, the larger islands being better wooded than the main land.

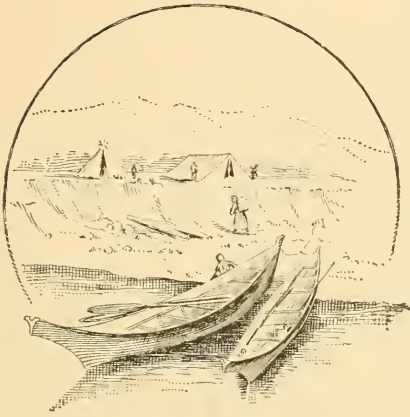
The coal resources of Alaska are lying dormant because the time does not seem to have arrived for the necessity of the opening up of the mines. A number of small veins or seams have been found on several of the islands in the Southeastern Alaskan country. Those which, perhaps so far have attracted the most attention, are on Chicagoff island near Killisnoo, where every indication promises an extensive deposit. All the coal found in Alaska is bituminous, and of a very good quality. Deposits have been found on the headwaters of the Chilkat river, Lituya bay, Cook inlet, Unga island and Port Mollar. The most extensive coal fields or deposits are in the Cook inlet country, cropping out on the beaches, and along many of the streams. Unga island has three distinct veins of coal extending a distance of two miles

upon the sides of the mountains, each of them being several feet thick. Some work has been done here within the last few years and government vessels have experimented with the coal, but find it contains a considerable amount of ashes and clinker. Doubtless when a greater depth is reached it will improve in quality. North of Unga island, about ten miles inland from Stepovak bay, is a trail or portage about ten miles long leading to Herendeen bay, at Port Mollar, on the Bering sea side. An excellent quality of coal is found here in large quantities. The Alaska Commercial Company, the principal owners of the mine, have shipped considerable coal to their station at Unalaska; and its quality, both for steaming and house purposes, is found to be superior to that found at Unga.

Extensive coal fields exist at Cape Lisburne, on the Arctic side, extending for thirty or forty miles parallel with the coast and for a number of miles back into the interior. It is of a lignite character, and the government vessels *Corwin* and *Thetis* have taken coal for steaming purposes from here, and have found an excess of ash and clinker, which seems to be the general fault with all coal thus far discovered in Alaska. Strong indications of petroleum are found back from the coast a few miles, in this cold Arctic region, and also between Icy bay and Cape Yaktaga. On the North Pacific coast, west of Yakutat bay, there are extensive deposits or indications of petroleum. Practically all the coal used by vessels navigating the Alaskan waters and in the mills and towns of Alaska is brought from the Puget Sound country and British Columbia. It is bought at the mines for about three dollars per ton, and the expense of shipping to the Southern Alaska ports is five or six dollars per ton. The expense of opening up a coal mine is so great that until there is a large demand in Alaska, it is doubtful if any of the mines will be worked.

CHAPTER V.

FISHERIES.



THE fish industry of Alaska is destined to assume immense proportions.

Upon the authority of Professor Bean, of the United States Fish Commission, more than one hundred varieties of fish are found in the Alaskan waters. Salmon, ranking first in importance, is found in great numbers in the streams from the lower extremity of South-

east Alaska to the Arctic ocean. The most favored varieties are those known as the red or silver salmon, weighing from eight to twelve or fifteen pounds each, and the king salmon often weighing as high as fifty pounds. The latter variety is found only in a few localities in Southeast Alaska and in the Yukon, many miles above its mouth. It is said that specimens have been caught weighing over one hundred and twenty pounds.

The first salmon cannery in Alaska was erected in 1878, and at the present time there are thirty-six, most of them are in operation each season.

The growth of this industry was extremely rapid, canneries being constructed at a cost of from fifty thousand to one hundred and twenty thousand dollars each. Enormous profits gave rise to much speculation, but it was found that the supply of canned salmon when the canneries were run at their fullest capacity was too great for the demand.

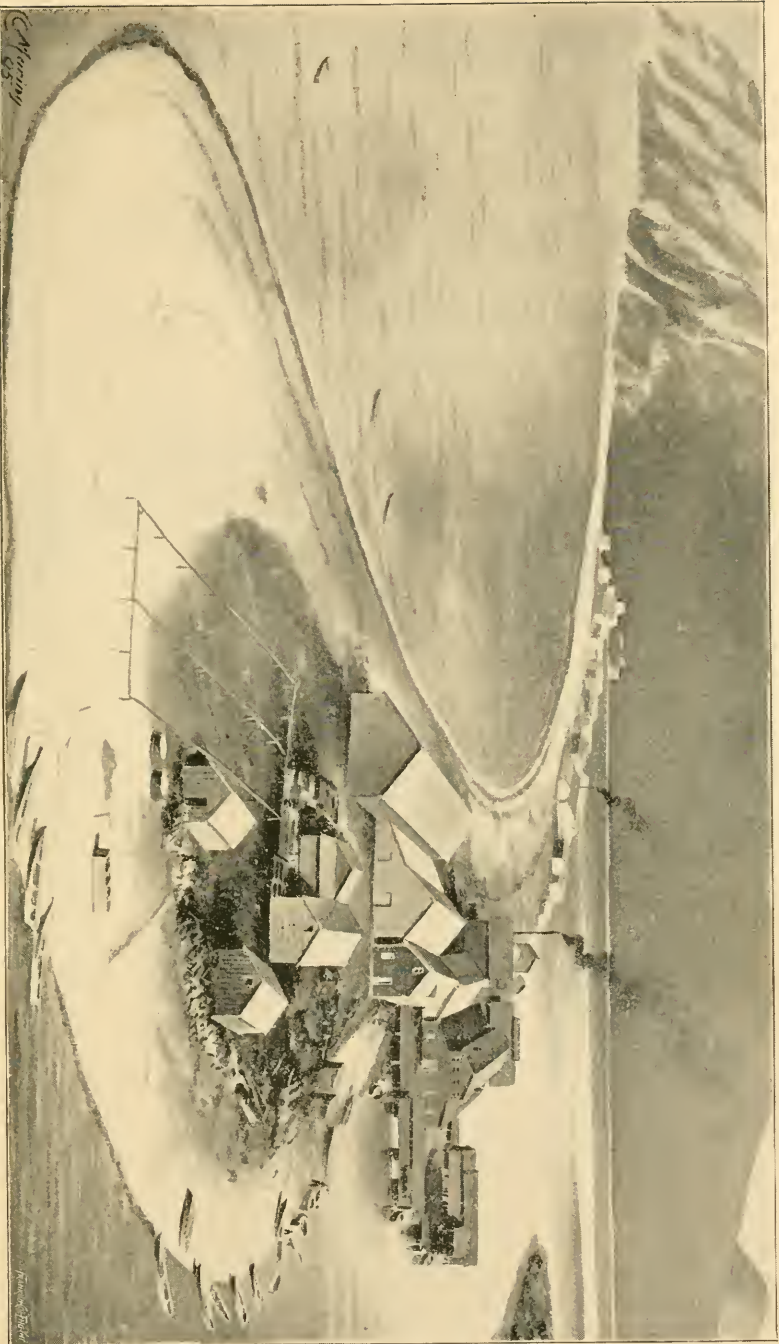
In 1892, a combination or trust was formed, which resulted in closing down several canneries, but the owners came into a gen-

eral pool and received a *pro rata* interest in the proceeds arising from the packs of the canneries in operation. Some of these canneries have a capacity of from forty thousand to sixty thousand cases each year, and when it is understood that a single case contains four dozen one pound cans, and that in the year 1889 the combined pack of all the canneries was nearly seven hundred thousand cases, an idea can be formed of the vast number of salmon caught.

It is unusual for more than one establishment to be found on any salmon stream, but at Karluk, on the northwest side of Kadiak island, a small stream not exceeding sixty feet wide at its mouth, there are five canneries, and the salmon seem inexhaustible. The river at its mouth, and for a long distance out into the salt water, during the spawning season, when the salmon are on their way to the lakes above for the purpose of depositing their eggs, seems to be fairly swarming with these fish. They fill the water to such extent as to almost dam it up, and those below, in their eagerness to ascend the river, crowd those on top so that their fins and part of their body are exposed to view. The first season I beheld the sight I thought an appropriate name would be the "River of Life."

While it will not be fair to charge these canning companies with being directly antagonistic to the settlement and development of Alaska, it is true that their influence has always been exerted in that direction. It has been the practice of these corporations to bring all their help from outside the territory. Not only are their fishermen brought from the Pacific coast States, but the entire canning force—and each establishment employs from forty to seventy-five men—are Chinamen. There are two exceptions, however, where the natives do most of the work of canning salmon, namely, at Klawak and New Metlakatla.

It requires no special skill to catch salmon, yet it has been the custom of these canneries to bring white men into the country in the spring, for the purpose, and take them back to their home when the fishing season ended. It has been also the practice to pay the men for their season's work after they have reached their homes, thus, not only taking the product of the streams away without paying a dollar for it, but depriving the territory of the benefit resulting from the labor therein, which would contribute in no small way to the support and upbuilding of the country. If these industries would employ white men altogether



KARLUK SAND SPIT AND "RIVER OF LIFE."

it would bring into the country many who might identify themselves with it in some way, during the months the canneries are idle. Again, in the packing of salted salmon, the interests of the country are not considered. Fully seven thousand barrels, each weighing two hundred pounds, are prepared for the market each year.

In the preparation of salmon an enormous quantity of boxes are used, but the sawmills of the territory are not patronized. For the material is imported and the boxes are put together as they are needed, though they might be manufactured in the country of as good quality of timber, at less cost, than they are furnished under the present system.

Southeast Alaska is covered with a dense growth of spruce, hemlock and cedar, which should be a source of income and a means of employment for a large number of men, but it is lying dormant because one of the great industries of the territory does not deem it proper to encourage manufactures within its borders.

The liberty these canneries take in catching fish without restriction is a feature of this subject which is liable to be of great importance to the people who will in time inhabit Alaska, as well as to the many thousands of natives, who have, from the earliest periods, subsisted upon fish food. Restriction should have been imposed upon them a number of years ago. Some of the canneries have erected traps at the mouths of the different streams, and few salmon are permitted to escape. It will not be difficult to understand, therefore, that in a few years streams thus obstructed must become exhausted, unless some means are adopted to prevent this wholesale destruction.

Two years ago Congress passed a bill forbidding the construction of traps, and sending officers into the territory to execute the law, but failing to make an appropriation, of course the law was inoperative.

Alaskan codfish industry promises to become extensive in the near future. Cod are found in large quantities along the Aleutian chain of islands, as far west as the Alexandria archipelago, and in a general way they may be said to exist along the whole southern coast of Alaska.

In the vicinity of the Kadiak group of islands, and still further south to the Simeonoff, and at the Shumagin group, about the islands of Magipopf and Unga, cod are found in great abundance. In Bering sea, towards the lower Siberian shore, they are also

found in large quantities. Two San Francisco firms are the only parties engaged in the catching and shipment of cod at the present time, but they seem to have developed the business sufficiently to meet the demand, for they have a number of vessels each season employed in the traffic. The manner of fishing is usually from dories. The fishermen are paid at the rate of \$25 for every thousand fish caught, and they are to measure at least twenty-six inches in length. If smaller fish are accepted, say measuring from twenty-four to twenty-six, two fish are counted as one. So it will be seen, that these fish are caught with considerable ease and in great quantities, in order to pay the fishermen \$50 per month, the amount they expect to make from the cruise.

Next in importance to the cod ranks the halibut, which is found in vast quantities in the waters of the inland canal, among the more shallow waters of the North Pacific, and in some portions of Bering sea. They often weigh two hundred or more pounds, and one of the pleasures of tourists is catching these fish from the deck of the steamer while lying at some station.

The halibut is a staple article of diet, both fresh and dried, with the natives, and it is said that the Alaskan halibut will compare favorably, if they do not excel, those caught on the Atlantic coast.

A fishing concern in Sitka has recently put up a limited amount of smoked halibut, and it has proven a most delicious article of food. Very little effort has yet been made to force the sale, but the curing of halibut in this way may ultimately prove one of the leading industries of this country.

There are immense schools of herring in most of the inland waters or estuaries of Alaska, and they too form an important element of the food supply of the natives. The greatest supply is found at Killisnoo, on the west side of Admiralty island, where, some twelve years ago, the largest fish oil plant in the world was erected. Herring are caught by means of seines, and a single haul of twenty-five hundred barrels has been taken. After the oil is pressed from the fish, the refuse is put up as a fertilizer and shipped, principally to the Sandwich islands.

The oolikon or candle fish are also found in the inland channels, and in some localities of the North Pacific coast. They are a species of smelt, and are about eight inches long and almost round. They are so oily, that after being dried, they can be lighted and will burn completely up, throwing a glare like a

candle, as their name implies. The natives use these fish in greater numbers perhaps than any other variety. When boiled, they have a delicious flavor and are tender and delightfully sweet. The oil is considered a rare delicacy by the natives, and quite an industry is carried on among those living in localities far remote from this fish supply.

Most of the varieties of fish found on the Pacific coast, together with clams, mussels, and crabs, are found in great abundance in all the waters of Alaska, but oysters do not exist, probably on account of the low temperature of the water.

The species of whale known as the beluga or white grampus is native in the deep waters and has been known to ascend some of the larger rivers. The skin of this mammal is employed by the natives in the manufacture of rope, straps and soles of boots.

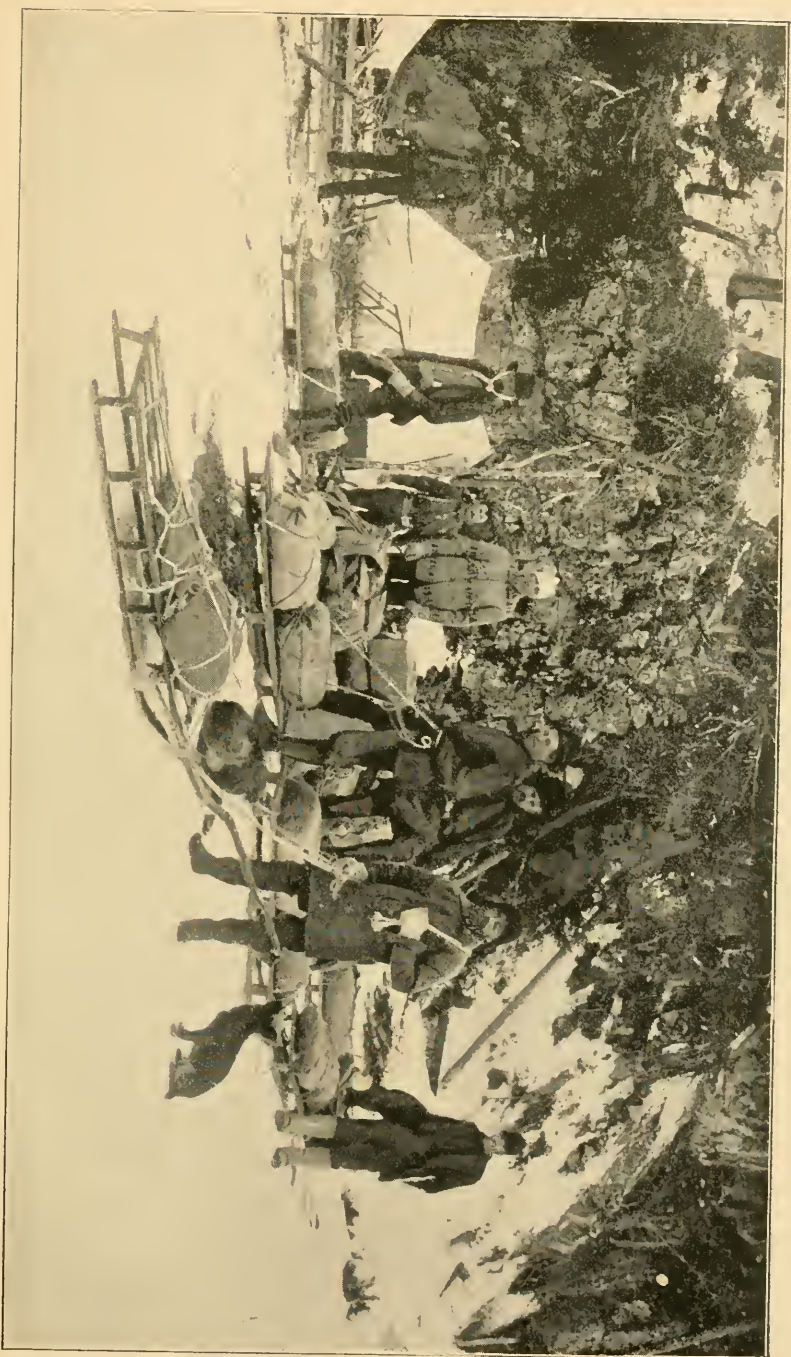
The hair seal are found in great numbers in the waters throughout the whole territory, and, as is well known, constitute the principal food supply of the natives, and especially is this true in the northern waters. They delight to frequent the waters of Glacier bay, and the natives hunt them much easier among the bergs of ice than in the waters of the ocean. A white cloth is spread over the bow of the canoe, giving it the appearance of a piece of ice, and the natives dressed in jacket and hat of the same material, paddling among the ice, thus they are often enabled to get within arms length of their prey before it detects the deception.

The walrus, a native of Bering sea and the Arctic, travels in herds, and in the long days of summer may be seen in large numbers lying lazily on the ice. The skin of this animal is used by the natives as covering for their boats, and the tusks are worked up into implements of the chase and hunt, but it is fast disappearing before civilization.

Whale are found in all the deep waters, and even in the inland passages they may be seen sporting. It is not uncommon for schools of the black whale to be seen from the decks of the tourist steamers. While they cannot be properly considered as one of the resources of Alaska, still in the northern or Arctic region, they have formed one of the most important food supplies of the natives, but they are now becoming scarce. As on account of the high price of bone, whale hunting with steam vessels has been prosecuted with vigor, and in a few years they are destined to become extinct.

Upwards of seventy-five vessels are now engaged in the whaling business, and they must penetrate several miles above Bering strait before they encounter any of them. The business is hazardous and great risks must be run. In the summer of 1877 nearly fifty vessels were lost, and a number of crews perished, preferring to remain on the vessels rather than risk making their way across the sea to land. This catastrophe led the government to establish a rescue station at Point Barrow, the most northern point of Alaska, which is provisioned with supplies sufficient to last one hundred men a year. It is in charge of a government official whose duty it is to render aid and succor to shipwrecked sailors.





YUKON MINERS AT SHEEP CAMP.

Winter & Pond Photo, Juneau, Alaska.

CHAPTER VI.

ROUTE TO THE YUKON RIVER.

THE head of steamboat navigation is at Ty-a, at the extreme northern point of what is known as the Chilkoot inlet branch of Lynn canal. The distance from salt water to the lakes or headwaters of the Yukon river, on the other side of the mountain range, is about twenty-seven miles.

The usual place for laying in supplies for a trip into the interior is at Juneau, where the route to the gold fields of the Yukon may be said to commence.

The quantity of supplies must be determined by the size of one's purse, but in no case should the journey be attempted without a supply sufficient to last at least two months. The following list is about the assortment one needs: Flour, bacon, baking powder, beans, dried fruit, desiccated vegetables, butter, sugar, condensed milk, tea, coffee, salt, pepper, matches, mustard, cooking utensils, dishes, sheet-iron stove, woolen blankets, rubber blankets, oilskin bags, tools for boat building, such as jack-plane, whipsaw, draw-knife, axe, hatchet, pocket rule, nails, oakum, pitch, rope, mosquito netting, rubber boots, snow glasses, and medicines.

Ty-a affords the last opportunity for purchasing supplies for several hundred miles. This point may be reached either on the mail steamer to Chilkat, and thence by small boat to Ty-a, a journey of about twenty-five miles; or direct from Juneau by small sailing craft or steamers that make trips as often as there are passengers to carry.

Miners generally employ natives to pack supplies across the mountain, the usual charge for this work being from \$12.00 to \$14.00 per one hundred pounds, and the distance is about twenty-seven miles. This great expense renders it advisable to carry only such supplies as will last during the trip.

For many years the Alaska Commercial Company have had

trading posts at Forty Mile and other points, but the emigration has been so great within the past three years that a new company known as the North American Trading and Transportation Company, established quarters a half mile north of Forty Mile called Fort Cudahy, and the competition between the two companies has very much reduced the expense of living in the interior.

The most favorable time for going into the interior is before the snow melts from the mountains, which does not occur until about the middle of April. The abrupt passages and what is known as the Summit, are better accomplished by hauling supplies on sleds. After the summit is passed, if the journey is continued before the ice breaks up, it often happens that long distances may be made by means of sails raised on improvised masts on the sled. The sledge should be about seven feet four inches long, seven inches high and sixteen inches wide, of strong but light timber, and the runners shod with either brass or steel, the former being preferable, because the sled will glide over the snow more smoothly in intensely cold weather, while steel is inclined to grind and lug very much as if it were being hauled over sand. When the weather is cold, if water is taken into the mouth and held a moment, then blown over the runner, a coating will immediately form, and if this process is repeated when it becomes a little worn off, one will be surprised to find how much smoother and easier the sled will draw. It is preferable to use the Eskimo mode of making sledges for Yukon traveling. They use no nails or bolts, binding the joints together with strong cords. There is much less danger in breaking, if made in this way, should the sled be overturned, as the joints will yield when thus tied together. After the ice has disappeared canoes are used for the first six miles after leaving Ty-a. From this point the route lies through what is known as the canyon. Quite a steep ascent is made until Sheep Camp is reached. Here a rest is taken to await favorable weather before attempting a passage over the summit, about eight miles further up the rugged sides of the mountain, and the most difficult and tedious part of the journey. From the summit to the head of Lake Linderman, nine miles must be traveled. It is down grade, and practically easy to accomplish with snow on the ground, but when bare it is quite difficult on account of rocks and boulders. This portion of the route is easily accomplished by following the canyon.

Lake Linderman, the first water reached after passing over

the summit, is one of a chain of lakes and streams called by the miners the "headwaters of the Yukon," though British authorities describe them as the headwaters of Lewis river.

The timber in this locality is sparse, of a poor quality, and suitable only for rafts. A raft should be constructed in a manner that will afford protection from water a foot or more above the sides, otherwise the supplies are liable to be damaged, and they should be carefully enclosed in oilskin sacks at the outset of the journey.

From the head of Lake Linderman, on both sides to Lake Bennett, the general character of the country is mountainous, with narrow benches skirting the shore. The distance across Lake Linderman is nearly five miles, and from the foot of this lake about fifty yards of a portage is made of the one mile river to Lake Bennett, because this stream is very crooked and full of rocks, making boat passage difficult and dangerous.

At the head of Lake Bennett, there are high mountains on both sides, but they begin to flatten out toward the foot of the lake. This journey, a distance of twenty-four miles, may be continued by a raft or by ascending a river, small in size, which enters the lake from the west. Here timber suitable for boat building is to be found. The right-hand side of Lake Bennett should be followed until Cariboo crossing is reached. At this crossing, which is really the connecting water between Lake Bennett and Lake Tagish, for a distance of two miles a trail used by bands of cariboo can be traced along the foothills, hence the name. From Cariboo crossing past the main channel to head of Tagish lake keep left-hand shore to foot, a distance of nineteen miles. Lake Marsh, or Mud lake, is connected with Tagish lake by a wide river with a slow current, whose banks are bordered with low-lying slopes, timbered by cottonwood and white spruce. The distance is six miles, and in some places the water is very shallow. The traveler should follow the left bank of Lake Marsh into the river connecting this with Lake Le Barge, keeping on the right-hand side, to the head of the canyon twenty five miles below. If a man is a skillful navigator he can run his boat through the canyon a distance of three-fourths of a mile and land on the right-hand side. If not, he had better make a portage. From this point he should follow the left-hand side two miles to the head of White Horse rapids, and land on the left-hand side. Great caution should be exercised in reaching the point where the land-

ing is made this side of the White Horse. Through the White Horse one-half mile, in a low stage of water, the boat can be dropped with a line, but if the water is high, a portage of about one hundred yards must be made, and on the last pitch of the canyon another short portage of about one hundred feet will be necessary. From this point there is an open river to Lake Le Barge.

From the head to the foot of Lake Le Barge is a distance of about thirty-one miles and it averages five miles wide. The boat should be headed right straight for an island near the center of the lake and, if the weather is favorable, cross from island to right-hand side of lake. From the island, the traveler should cross to the left-hand side of the lake if windy, and it is better to follow close to the shore. From the foot of Lake Le Barge to the mouth of the Hootalinqua river, about thirty miles, the water is very swift with many rocks, and extreme caution should be observed in navigating this portion of Thirty Mile river. From this point it is clear sailing for one hundred and thirty-three miles to Five Fingers, so-called because of five columns of rock which partly obstruct the river, and whose outline resemble the fingers of the human hand. Five or six miles before reaching Five Fingers, the current becomes much swifter, and high hills hug the shore. The right-hand bank should be followed closely; otherwise, the bend curves so sharply that Five Fingers would be reached and a landing could not be effected. This landing should be made twenty yards above Five Fingers in an eddy, and if the boat is heavily loaded it should be lightened before attempting to pass. The run should then be made, landing on the right-hand side. Following the right hand shore all the way for about five miles, Rink rapids, one and a half miles in length (caused by a chain of rocks reaching nearly across the river), are reached. The right-hand side or east shore must be followed closely all the way. From this point the river is easy to navigate to its mouth. About fifty-five miles below the foot of Rink rapids, old Fort Selkirk is reached. It is situated near the confluence of Pelly and Lewis rivers. Here a trading post is run by an old-timer named Harper, and this is also a winter port for steamboats plying on the Yukon and its tributaries. The fort was pillaged and burned by coast Indians in 1853, and ruins of what once were chimneys only being seen.

From old Fort Selkirk the river has a uniform width, contains



YUKON MINERS SLEDDING OVER ROUTE.

Winter & Pond, Photo, Juneau, Alaska.

many islands, and the country through which it runs is well timbered for some distance. The White river, a large stream having a ten or twelve mile current, comes roaring down from the west ninety-five miles from Selkirk. This river gets its name from the appearance of its waters which are of a muddy white hue. It is supposed to have its source in a number of high mountains and lakes to the west. Near its source, the Indians say, there is an active volcano which they call Smoky Mountain.

The Yukon rapidly widens after being joined by the White river, and becomes a mile wide, islands dot its surface at frequent intervals, and the valley, too, becomes broader as if in sympathy with the river. Ten miles below the White, the Stewart river enters from the east. Its waters dark and deep are bordered by rugged hills which here and there assume the proportion of mountains. Miners are found on many parts of this river and its hundreds of miles of tributaries and gulches, many of which are unprospected. It is probably four hundred miles in length.

About seventy miles below the mouth of Stewart river, Sixty Mile creek, the next place of note, comes in from the west. It has a trading post and a sawmill, and is the headquarters of some five score miners who generally spend the winter months there. It has a swift current, and is filled with rapids, and is therefore not easy of ascent. Below Sixty Mile creek the Yukon becomes placid and the number of islands increase. The valley narrows, and the hills become more abrupt, while on every hand abundant evidence of quartz croppings can be obtained.

The next stream of note is the Forty Mile creek which flows into the Yukon a few miles west of the boundary line.

At the junction of Forty Mile creek with the Yukon, is located almost within the shadow of the Arctic Circle, the Alaska Commercial Company's station, Forty Mile. It has been for a number of years under the control of a man known by every person who has passed through the valley of the Yukon as "Jack" McQuestion. Of marked ability, and a man of the world, he has been the mainstay, the guide, the philosopher and friend of the miners, and is held by them in high esteem. Many an unfortunate prospector is aided by him, and seldom does he refuse an appeal for credit. A genial, friendly disposition, with a heart "as big as an ox," he is ever ready to extend a helping hand,

and all that is necessary to get a supply of food is to show a disposition to work. The town has a population of five or six hundred, and besides the Alaska Commercial Company's store, which, at the opening of the season carries a stock of goods valued at \$125,000, there are restaurants, billiard halls, several saloons, an opera house, barber shops, and the town boasts of the finest residence in a region embracing three hundred thousand square miles of territory. It is a two-story building owned by Joseph Cooper, an old Colorado miner, and cost \$3,000.

The price of restaurant board is \$12 per week, and whisky costs \$9 a gallon, or fifty cents per glass over the bar. "This town on the Yukon," says a recent writer, "is an ideal '49 mining camp; its saloons, gambling houses, concert halls, etc., give it an air of bustling activity, from which, however, the element of outlawry is almost entirely eliminated. Miners' law prevails, and justice is fairly and impartially administered. The entire Yukon valley bears an enviable reputation for peace and morality. Simple, but effective self-adopted rules of government are found amply sufficient to insure order, and they are universally respected."

About three-fourths of a mile below Forty Mile post, is a new and enterprising town named after Cudahy, so well known throughout the country as the packer of meats, and who is a member of the North American Transportation and Trading Company, better known in the Yukon valley as "Captain Healy's Company." This post was established in the summer of 1892. In size, population, and general business activity, and in the volume of business done, it is a duplicate of its neighbor. Captain Healy has established a number of posts on the river not heretofore covered by the Alaska Commercial Company. It is safe to say that these two concerns will control, for a long time, the major portion of the traffic of this country. Captain Healy is one of the best known pioneers of Alaska, having established and done a large business for a number of years, principally with the natives at the head of the Chilkoot arm of Lynn canal, where he established the trading post known as Ty-a. The able assistant in the management of Fort Cudahy, Mr. Charles Hamilton, went into this far off country fresh from one of the government departments at Washington. In the fall of 1892, the company's river boat was detained by ice at Nulato, a short distance above the mouth of the Yukon. It became necessary to communicate with the head office at Chicago,



YUKON MINERS PACKING OVER ROUTE.

Winter & Pond, Photo, Juneau, Alaska.

and Mr. Hamilton undertook to make the trip the whole length of this river with dogs; in about four months he succeeded in reaching the coast at the head of Lynn canal. It was a most remarkable trip; and he is the only man who is entitled to the credit of having,—as a newspaper saw fit to express it,—“split the continent squarely in two.” The next spring he went overland to Forty Mile, where he met the boat on its up trip, and the following winter, he again made the trip to the coast, traveling with a dog sledge all the way.

About one hundred and seventy miles from Forty Mile, to the west, the Yukon flats are encountered, and just within them is located a new mining camp called Circle City, which was founded in the fall of 1894. It is the distributing point for the vast regions surrounding Birch creek, which flows into the Yukon two hundred and twenty-five miles below. Circle City has been platted into streets, and a recording office for this mining district is located here. Six miles westward from Circle City a portage of six miles carries the traveler to Birch creek, nearly two hundred miles above its mouth.

The territory drained by the Yukon river in every direction, for three or four hundred miles in this region, is low country, called the Yukon flats. These flats, whose extent is not known, are supposed by miners and others to have at one time formed the bed of a vast lake.

The principal tributary of the Yukon, below Birch creek, is the Tanana river, probably eight hundred miles in length, and having a number of other streams of considerable size flowing into it. The Tanana drains the country stretching from the head of the river and the Yukon, to the White river on the south. This river has been very slightly explored, and little is known of it, or of the natives who inhabit its banks. They are, however, reported by the few venturesome prospectors who have made their way into this section to be rather ill-disposed.

Nuklukyeto is located at the junction of the Tozikakat river with the Yukon, where the Alaska Commercial Company have a trading post which was established a number of years ago.

About five hundred and fifty miles below the Tanana the waters of the Koyukuk river joins the Yukon from the north. Below the Koyukuk river, the only streams of any importance that empty into the Yukon are the Innoko, coming in from the

south, and the Anvik, about thirty miles further down, which enters from the north.

The only station at which the ocean steamers land having freight or passengers for the upper Yukon, is St. Michael's. This has been the principal trading post of the Alaska Commercial Company, and the outfitting post for their stations on the river, for the past twenty years. It is located about sixty miles to the north of the usual entrance to the Yukon, on what is known as St. Michael's island.

The question is often asked why a location for a town has not been made nearer the mouth of the river, and thus obviating the necessity of the river boats steaming out into the open waters of Bering sea to take on their freight. So far as is known, there is not a suitable location where the high water, on the breaking up of the ice in the river, does not overflow. The Yukon is very shallow at its mouths, eight feet being the greatest depth found. The ice passes out of the Yukon, and leaves it free for navigation, about the middle of June, but it is not clear for an approach to St. Michael's until several days later. If a station could be located within easier access to the river, it would afford an opportunity to get to the headwaters earlier. St. Michael's is, strictly speaking, a native town. Aside from the buildings and store of the Alaska Commercial Company and the residences of its employes, a church building and the residence of its pastor, the houses and residences are those of the natives. Enormous supplies of goods are shipped here every year for the trading posts and missions on the river, and during the two months at the opening and closing of the season, it presents an air of bustle and business activity rarely found at any of the frontier Alaska towns. The new company, known as the North American Transportation and Trading Company, are making arrangements to build warehouses and a trading post about a half mile south of the old town.

The Yukon river and its many tributaries, a number of which can be navigated by light draft steamers for several hundred miles, traverse an empire. The Yukon is navigable by four hundred-ton stern-wheel boats, drawing four feet of water, for a distance of eighteen hundred and fifty miles from its mouth, or to the mouth of Pelly river. It flows into Bering sea through several different mouths, that farthest north being nearly one hundred miles distant from its most southern artery. Its course



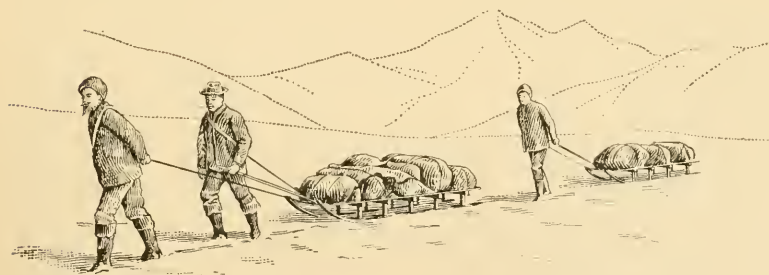
YUKON MINERS AND NATIVES PACKING OVER ROUTE.

Winter & Pond, Photo, Juneau, Alaska,

is westerly, but bends north to the Arctic circle when about midway across the territory. At the junction of the Pelly and Lewis rivers it has an average width of perhaps three-quarters of a mile until it reaches Fort Yukon, where it is about eight miles wide, and again narrows to from two to three miles at the mouth of the Koyukuk river, and maintains this width to Koserefski, from which point it again widens to eight or ten miles, and carries this width towards its mouth, then flows into Bering sea through a number of different channels.

The navigable tributaries of the Yukon for small, light-draft boats, may be grouped as follows: The Andreafski for fifty miles, Shagluk slough fifty miles, Innoko fifty miles, Tanana three hundred miles, Klanarchagut twenty-five miles, Beaver creek one hundred miles, Birch creek one hundred and fifty miles, Koyukuk river three hundred miles, Porcupine one hundred miles, Stewart five hundred miles, Pelly fifty miles, and the McMillan two hundred miles.

While the Yukon is navigable for a distance of one thousand eight hundred and fifty miles with a four hundred ton vessel, a one hundred and fifty ton steamer with powerful machinery would be enabled to pass through Five Fingers and three hundred miles further through Hootalinqua river to the head of Teslin lake.



CHAPTER VII.

THE YUKON GOLD FIELDS.

GOLD was first discovered in paying quantities in the Yukon basin in 1881. In that year a party of four miners crossed the range and descended the Lewis river as far as the Big Salmon river, which they ascended for a distance of two hundred miles. Gold was found on all of its bars, many of which paid well. In the next three or four years some mining was done on the Pelly and Hootalinqua rivers, and, in 1886, gold in considerable quantities was found at Cassiar bar on the Stewart river. The richest, by the way, so far located in the Yukon country, yielded as high as one hundred dollars per day to each man.

As early as 1860 men in the employ of the Hudson's Bay Company are reported to have found gold in the Yukon basin. Professor Davidson credits George Holt as being the first white man to cross the coast range. A confusion exists as to the time of Holt's journey, the dates being variously given as 1872, 1874 and 1878.

Holt went down the chain of lakes to Lake Marsh or Mud lake, as it is sometimes called, and then followed an Indian trail to the Hootalinqua river, where, he reported upon his return, he had found coarse gold. No coarse gold, however, has since been found on that river, but the bars yield large quantities of flour gold. In 1880 Edward Bean led a party of twenty-five men from Sitka to the Hootalinqua river, but met with indifferent success. Other parties also crossed the pass during the same year.

The Yukon section may be divided into three divisions, namely, the upper lying entirely within British territory, and embracing the White, Stewart, Pelly, Lewis and Hootalinqua rivers, which together form the headwaters of the main Yukon; the middle division includes Fort Reliance and the country down to the mouth of the Tanana river; the lower division stretches from the mouth of the Tanana to Norton Sound and Bering sea.



YUKON MINERS AT STONE HOUSE.

Winter & Pond Photo, Juneau, Alaska.

It is in the middle division that the recent discoveries have been made; on Forty Mile, Sixty Mile, Miller, Glacier and Birch creek, and Koyukuk river. Forty Mile and Sixty Mile creeks flow into the Yukon from the west, having their source in the Ratzel mountains, a low, intermediate range running nearly parallel to the Yukon, and forming the divide between the Yukon and Tanana rivers. The streams putting into the Tanana on the west side of this range have not yet been explored; but lower down, along the banks of the Tanana, gold in paying quantities has been found, and a few of the bars worked. Recent estimates of the gold output from the middle division alone, for the past year, are placed at \$200,000; while from \$25,000 to \$50,000 has been mined in the upper and lower divisions.

Miller creek, one of the richest so far discovered in the interior, is a tributary of Sixty Mile creek, entering it about seventy miles from its mouth. It is about seven miles long, and upwards of fifty mining claims have been located there, but few of them have, as yet, been developed to any considerable extent. Miners prospected this creek at various times for several years, each time abandoning it because the vast accumulations of drift found everywhere made it unprofitable to work. But, in 1892, prospecting again began, and many rich strikes were made. One claim alone yielding \$37,000 of the yellow metal, and one clean-up of about eleven hundred ounces was reported. One hundred and twenty-five miners have located on this creek, many of whom own their own claims. The rate of wages here established is ten dollars per day, which is the usual price paid in all the camps.

Glacier creek is another branch of Sixty Mile creek being separated from Miller creek about three miles, and runs nearly parallel with it. Claims located on this creek and prospected last season, promise to equal in richness those of Miller creek, and rich finds have been reported here on claims abandoned by prospectors some time before. The whole creek has been located. The first claims were located the middle of last summer. The gulch is nine miles in length, and varies in width from a mile and one-half at its mouth to sixty feet at the head. The prospects on Glacier creek are even better than those on Miller creek, the dirt yielding from a few cents to four dollars to the pan. Mining Recorder Paddock, of Glacier creek, speaks as

follows of a trip made in the dead of winter from Forty Mile post: "I started on January the third from Forty Mile for Miller creek, distant about sixty-five miles, and arrived February 27th. The cold was severe, the thermometer ranging from forty-two degrees to seventy-seven degrees below zero, compelling me to lie in camp for ten days. I drew a sled which carried my small outfit, and meeting many steep and difficult places on the route, across gulches and over ridges, I was compelled on several occasions to divide my load and take it in sections."

Another creek, distant about three miles from Miller creek, is named Bed Rock, but as yet has not proved very promising as a mining location.

Indian creek flows into the Yukon about thirty miles below Sixty Mile creek. Here rich gold discoveries were reported last year. The stream is rapid, but shallow, but prospectors have ascended it a distance of over one hundred miles.

Forty Mile creek is more familiarly known to the miners of Alaska, and perhaps to the people at large, than any other mining locality in the territory. Its bars have yielded large returns, but these diggings are practically abandoned for the gulches and ravines that furnish coarser gold. It is about two hundred miles long, and its tributaries are numerous. Entering the Yukon from the west, it drains the country lying between the Yukon and Tanana rivers. It was not discovered until 1887, and was the scene of the first real excitement in the valley of the Yukon. This stream enters that river from the west in about sixty-four degrees north latitude and about one hundred and forty-one degrees west longitude. Its mouth is in Canadian territory. The first news of gold being found here was brought to the coast by a man named Tom Williams, who was the bearer of letters to "Jack" McQuestion, of the Alaska Commercial Company's trading post at the junction of Forty Mile creek with the Yukon, who was then in San Francisco, advising him of the discovery, and instructing him to ship in a larger supply of provisions in anticipation of a rush to the new Eldorado the following spring. Williams was accompanied by an Indian boy with a dog team and sled. They had an extremely rough trip up the river. It was in the dead of winter and the cold was intense. Before reaching Lake Bennett the dogs all died from cold and exhaustion. At the summit of Chilkoot pass a fearful storm arose, and the struggling travelers were compelled to hastily build a snow hut in



YEKON MINERS AND NATIVES AT SUMMIT OF CHILKOOT PASS.

Winter & Pond Photo, Juneau, Alaska.

which they remained ten days, living on a little dry flour, the only thing left them in the way of provisions. Both men were badly frost-bitten, and upon attempting to resume the journey it was found that Williams was unable to travel. Nothing daunted, the young Indian took his companion on his back and, struggling through drifts and blinding snow, succeeded in reaching Ty-a, sixteen miles distant. A few days later Williams died, but not until he told Captain Healy of the strike at Forty Mile, and of his mail pouch containing his letters which was left at the snow hut at the summit, where it was afterward recovered.

In the following spring active mining operations began, and, it is estimated, that since that time upwards of half a million dollars in gold have been taken out of Forty Mile creek, and the small feeders running into it. On Forty Mile nearly all the available rich ground has been worked out, but there are many high bars along the stream known to be rich, which have not as yet been touched, because of the difficulty of getting water through them, and the frozen condition of the ground.

Birch creek, the scene of the latest strikes and excitement in the Yukon country, runs parallel with the Yukon on the west, for over three hundred miles, and as elsewhere related, has a remarkable feature of a portage only six miles across between this and the Yukon, two hundred miles above its confluence with that stream, so a trip by water by one terminal of the portage to the other involves a journey of four hundred miles. Here on the Yukon side of the gateway to the Birch creek mines, is Circle City, and at the close of the season last fall, fully three hundred miners were to be found in the different gulches, many of whom intended to spend the winter drifting, and opening up their claims.

Ned Ayleward, a Birch creek miner, in describing the gold discoveries there, says: "In coarse gold I got as high as thirteen dollars to the pan. The gold is like pumpkin seeds, but some pieces weigh from three to ten dollars, and I think I will make from forty to fifty dollars per day, when I have my claim opened up. In prospecting, I would get from fifteen to twenty dollars, under a little stone on bed rock. I did not leave Juneau broke, for in that case I would have had to rustle for a "grub stake," and in all probability would not have made this strike. I have seen no quartz claims here that amount to anything, but am on the look out for them."

Here are extensive auriferous deposits, and the creeks and bars adjacent to Birch creek have been more or less thoroughly prospected, with the result that this section bids fair to become a vigorous gold-producing rival of the famed Forty Mile district.

One of the principal tributaries to Birch creek is Crooked creek, and from Circle City a trail leads over the hills to the mines on Independence and Mastodon creeks.

On Molymute, a branch of Birch creek, gold was first discovered in 1893, and since that time it has been found on tributary streams. Birch creek has been explored for upwards of three hundred and fifty miles, and the entire distance is filled with rapids and canyons. The South Fork drains the country lying at the head of Seventy Mile creek. Many claims were staked off last year at Mastodon, Independence, and other streams flowing into Birch creek. These claims are more easily worked than elsewhere on the Yukon and tributaries, from the fact that bedrock appears much nearer the surface, and water is more easily obtained. Some sixty miles below Birch creek portage Preacher creek joins the main stream. This creek is about one hundred and twenty miles long. It has been prospected but little, and not much is known of it, except that as everywhere else in the Yukon basin, gold is found. The headwaters of this creek penetrate a country whose geological formation is very peculiar, showing drift and disturbances which might have been caused by the receding of waters ages ago.

Three years ago some rich gold discoveries were made on the Koyukuk river which were prospected vigorously the following year with good results. A number of creeks, namely, North Fork, Wild creek, South Fork, and Fish creek, have also been prospected with fairly good success, but no extensive deposits have yet been found. Gold placer mining may be said to end here, as from this point to the mouth of the Yukon, little prospecting has been done. Below the Koyukuk river the only streams of any importance that empty into the Yukon, are the Innoko coming in from the south, and the Anvik from the north, about thirty miles further down.

Numerous creeks have been prospected and successfully worked along the branches of the Yukon and other rivers, some of them proving very rich; and during the past two years richer and more extensive deposits of gold have been found in this country, until to-day, the interior of Alaska is believed by many

to be the largest placer mining district on this continent. Various estimates have been made of the amount of gold taken out in the past two years, some of them reaching as high as one million dollars, but it is doubtful if more than half that amount has been found. A number of miners have taken out as high as \$12,000 or \$15,000, but, with few exceptions, these amounts were not washed out by individual miners, but by the combined work of several men.

In another chapter reference is made to the climatic conditions existing in Alaska. The difference in climate between the coast country and that of the interior is very marked. All along the Kuskokwim river, during the summer months, there is an excessive fall of rain, while in the interior it is very dry. Reference has also been made to the condition of the ground in the interior, and it is from the fact that the frozen earth extends to a depth of many feet below the surface, that placer mining in the interior is very difficult.

The surface of the ground is covered with moss often to the depth of eighteen inches, and the hot rays of the sun during the long days of summer are not able to penetrate sufficiently to thaw the ground underneath. It is only where the moss is stripped, and the bare surface is reached by the sun's rays, that it thaws to any extent. This method is often resorted to by the miners, in order to get the ground in readiness for their sluicing work. The ice does not usually pass out of the Yukon until the first or middle of June, but when it starts, it goes quickly, and miners are soon hard at work, digging into the bars and working their sluices.

As early as the middle of September the sun becomes so low that the air is chilly, and in a few days ice forms, so that further working of the ground must be abandoned until the following year.

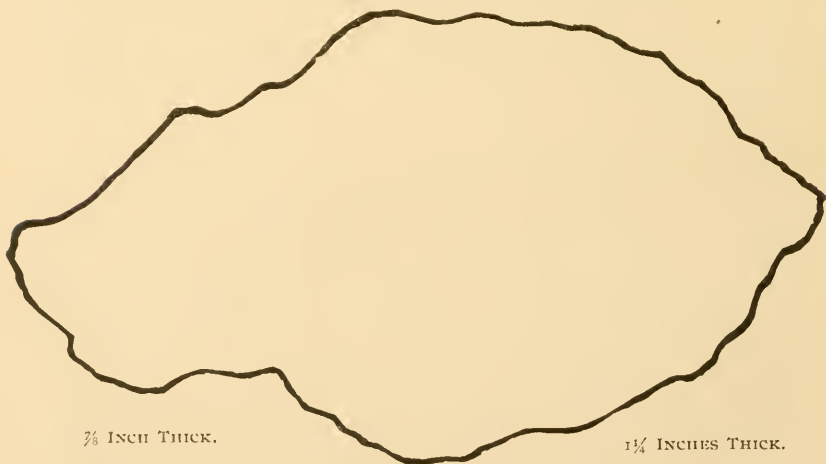
It must be remembered, however, that although one cannot depend upon much more than two months in which to work the ground, yet, from about the middle of June until the first of August, it is daylight, and the sun shines almost continually. Thus, what is lost in the length of the season is, in a measure, made up in the length of the day; and, if a man can stand the severe physical strain he must undergo, he can put many more hours in here than in placer mining camps in other parts of the country; and if his claim proves sufficiently rich to enable him

to pay for hired help, darkness never interferes with work, for by running two or three shifts each day, he can work his mine, and have daylight to do it in, nearly the entire season.

The complaint has always been made by miners, in the Yukon, and by those who know of the difficulties that beset prospectors in that country, that several months in the year are lost, and when the season closes nothing can be done but while away the time in visiting neighbors, making trips to the native settlements, or in hunting. But the happy thought came to some one to spend some of the time in summer prospecting and finding favorable locations; and in the winter to make fires upon the surface, thus thawing the ground until bedrock was reached, then to drift and tunnel, lifting the dirt to the surface, and piling it up so that when spring came, and water was to be had, he could wash his dirt and make it profitable. The last season closed with a determination on the part of many to carry out this method; a new impetus was given because several miners who had tried the plan the year previous found that the work thus done in the winter was not a useless expenditure of time and labor.

The largest nugget ever found on the Yukon was taken out by one Conrad Dahl, and was found in Franklyn gulch on March

A YUKON NUGGET.



SIZE AND SHAPE.

26, 1894. It weighed exactly thirty ounces before, and twenty-nine and forty-five one hundredth ounces after being melted at



THE CANYON, YUKON RIVER.

the mint in San Francisco. Dahl had prospected in the vicinity the summer before, and in the winter thawed the ground by burning wood on top, and continued this process until he reached bedrock, hauled the dirt out, and washed it afterwards. The nugget brought four hundred and ninety-one dollars and forty-five cents.

The next few years will probably determine whether there are any extensive deposits of gold quartz in the interior of Alaska. Most of the men who have gone into the interior have been men of very limited means, and the expense of carrying supplies in from the coast has been so great that their means was taxed to the utmost to land at the scene of their labors with food sufficient to last them a single season. It is thus seen that unless a "grub stake," at least, is made before winter sets in, they must go hungry or return to civilization. On this account they have not spent much time looking for quartz.

Within the past year companies have been formed and an effort made to test the quartz-bearing capacity of this country, with a very reasonable prospect that rich and valuable ledges will be found. It is fair to suppose when upon nearly every stream and creek gold is found in greater or less quantities, that somewhere in the mountains, whatever may be the climatic or other conditions that dissolve the ledges and turn the gold loose upon the broad level of the low lands, there must be rich gold quartz. There are instances, and not a few, where men in prospecting or working placer mines, have come across boulders or rocks containing gold, but, for the reasons stated above, they were not able to expend the labor necessary to follow up the "float."

If the indications of the placer fields mean anything, they suggest that the interior of Alaska is, in a very few years, destined to become a great center of quartz mining.

Those who have not had personal experience in placer mining cannot realize the fascination which is always with one engaged in this occupation. It is a healthful, hopeful, rugged and independent life. The placer miner goes alone into the mountain fastnesses with pick, shovel and pan, far away from every scene of civilization. He feels a pride in picking out the yellow fragments, which he has separated from the dirt by dextrous dipping, gradually letting the gravel run out with the water, while the yellow deposits settles around the edge and gravitates to the

bottom of the pan. Before venturing upon the life, he is naturally overcome with dread of separation from home and friends. He realizes that he is to be deprived of the pleasures of society; perhaps he is leaving a loving wife and children behind, but when once in the field these recollections crowd him on to new life and spur him to renewed efforts. And when, perhaps, he has secured his treasure and returns to find that he has not been forgotten, life seems to open up through a vista of years a new and happy existence. In no place on earth can you find such loyalty to friends, such honor among men, as in the camp of the miner. They are the architects of their own laws, and executioners as well. Their lives develop all the characteristics that go to make up a strong nature, and the dangers with which they come in contact, school them to bear their burdens calmly and to meet peril, or death if need be, with fortitude.



CHAPTER VIII.

LAND AND SEA ANIMALS.



ALASKA, in a peculiar sense, is the home of fur-bearing animals. It abounds in "fish, flesh and fowl." The bays and inlets teem with aquatic birds and animals, and the land is the home of the bear, wolf, deer, cariboo, moose, fox, wolverine and many others widely distributed.

Early in the history of the Russian occupancy of Alaska, the sea otter skin traffic, which for a long time had no competitor, began to find a rival of magnitude in the fur seal trade.

In 1786, the year succeeding the discovery of the Pribilof group of islands, over five hundred thousand fur seals were killed by Russian hunters, and the figures have even been placed as high as two millions. Whether the latter figures are exaggerated or not, it is true, that twenty years from that time, the fur seal had almost entirely disappeared from these islands. More than half of the skins taken on the Pribilof islands were thrown into the sea in an advanced stage of decomposition, because of careless curing, and the waters were so poisoned as to drive away the seals for several successive seasons.

Chinese merchants trading on the Siberian frontier, placed a high value upon these skins, and frequently refused to exchange teas with the Russian traders for any other commodity. When the Russian-American company obtained exclusive control of the Russian possessions in America, the fur seals were so nearly destroyed that, for a time, the new company's traffic was quite

insignificant. Prompt and efficient remedy was at once applied, by prohibiting the killing of seals for five years, from 1807 to 1812. At the expiration of that time the shy animals had returned, sufficiently recuperated to afford a continuous and reliable source of revenue.

The art of plucking and dying seal skins was invented by the Chinese. The exact date when this process was adopted by the English is unknown, but it occurred some time during the first half of the nineteenth century, as a regular demand for seal skins can be traced from that time. Shipments, directly to New York and London, were inaugurated about 1850, and these shipments continued at the rate of from twenty thousand to sixty thousand skins per annum, until the transfer of the Russian possessions to the United States.

When the question of acquiring Russian America was discussed in Congress, no particular stress was laid upon the prospective value of the fur seal industry, though it was known to be one of the principal sources of revenue to the Russian-American company. During the last decade of Russian ownership the agents in charge of the Pribilof islands reported each year that the fur seals were increasing in such numbers that the rookeries were crowded beyond their capacity. Each report was accompanied by urgent requests to be permitted to kill more seals, to make room for the increasing millions. The fact that it was possible to continue the slaughter, at the rate of one hundred thousand per annum, for twenty years after our purchase, seems to prove that when the United States acquired these valuable islands, the industry was in as prosperous condition as when discovered by Pribilof in 1786.

The radical restrictions of late years limiting the number of seals to be killed annually to one hundred thousand, were based upon careful observations and estimates; but the indiscriminate slaughter inaugurated within the past few years, by sealing vessels from British Columbia, which encounter the migrating animals on their way to the breeding grounds, and kill males and females alike, has fully justified the still more radical restrictions since made.

The only hauling or breeding grounds of the fur seal known in Alaska are upon the Islands of St. Paul and St. George. On the Otter islands, these animals occasionally haul up, but do not breed. The Pacific and Antarctic oceans have been



FUR SEAL ROOKERY, ST. PAUL ISLAND.

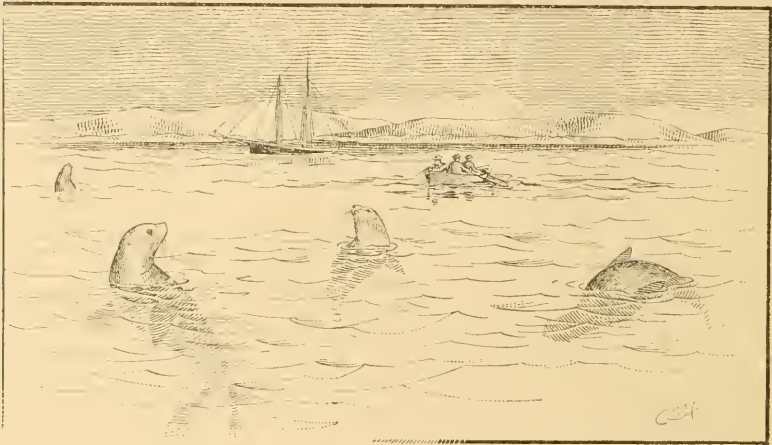
scoured by sealers and emissaries of trading firms, in search of supposed "winter homes" of the fur seal; but at the present day the fact seems to be established, that after leaving their confined breeding places, they scatter over the broad Pacific to locations where extensive elevations of the bottom of the sea enable them to subsist upon fish until the instinct of reproduction calls them again, from all directions, to their common rendezvous.

The killing of fur seals is done altogether on land, and has been reduced, through long observation and practice, to a science. Under the present lease the company has been restricted to kill less than seven thousand five hundred each year; and the only individuals permitted to do the work are the able-bodied Aleutian hunters, now living on the islands, whose ancestors were brought from the Aleutian islands by the Russian government. They receive forty cents per seal. Life-long practice has made them expert in using their huge clubs and sharp skinning knives, both instruments being manufactured expressly for this purpose. These men are proud of their skill as sealers, and will not demean themselves by doing any other kind of work.

The labor connected with the killing of seals may be divided into two distinct processes; the separation of the seals of a certain age and size from the main body and their removal to the killing ground; and the final process, of making another sorting among the select, and killing and skinning them. A damp, cloudy day is especially desirable for both driving and killing.

The young male seals, to the age of four years, invariably segregate themselves, in the rear of the so-called rookeries—or groups of families—that line the sea shore; and the experienced native crawls in between the families and these "bachelors." This is accomplished without difficulty, and the animals are driven inland, in droves of from one to three thousand each, very slowly, lest the animals become overheated and injure the quality of their skins. When the slaughter ground is reached, twenty or thirty seals are separated from their fellows, in quick succession, surrounded by their executioners armed with clubs, and the killing begins. The experienced eye of the Aleut quickly discovers if the seal is either under or above the specified age or size, and if such a one be found, he is dismissed, with a gentle tap on the nose, and allowed to make his way to the shore and escape.

The men with clubs proceed from one group to another, striking the seals violently on the nose to stun them. Others immediately follow with long, sharp knives, and stab each stunned seal to the heart, to insure immediate death. Then the skimmers come and, with astonishing rapidity, divest the carcasses of their rich and valuable covering, leaving, however, the head and flippers intact. Carts, drawn by mules, follow the skimmers, and into these the pelts are thrown to be carried away to the salt houses, and salted down for the time being, like fish in barrels. Later, after pressure is applied, they are rolled in bundles of two each, with the fur inside, securely strapped, and are then ready for shipment. The wives and daughters of the sealers linger



around the bloody field and reap a rich harvest of luscious blubber, carrying it away on their heads and shoulders, the oil dripping down over their faces and garments.

The sea otter seems to exist chiefly on a line parallel with the Japanese current, from the coast of Japan along the Kurile islands to the coast of Kamchatka, and thence westward along the Aleutian chain, the southward side of the Alaska peninsula, the estuaries of Cook inlet and Prince William sound, thence eastward and southward along the Alaska coast, the Alexander archipelago, British Columbia, Washington and Oregon. But it is becoming scarcer each year, owing to the recklessness with which it has been hunted and killed. Three distinct times, during the existence of the Russian-American company, their agents



KILLING FOR SEAL, ST. PAUL ISLAND.

in the Kurile islands have reported the sea otter extinct, but each time it has appeared again, after a few years respite from hunting. They change from one feeding ground to another. At the present date, about the Kurile islands and Kamchatka, few are killed annually, and Attu island and several smaller islands, which formerly furnished many hundred sea otter skins every year, now produce less than a dozen skins in the same time. The outlying reefs of Atka, also, once furnished an abundant supply of these skins, but are now entirely deserted. From the Island of Unimak eastward, however, sea otter has become more plentiful, and within a radius of fifty miles of the island, about one thousand are taken annually. But the hunting is carried on recklessly by whites and natives alike, with firearms, in direct violation of the law. They are still found in the waters of the Kadiak archipelago, as well as in the southern portion of Cook inlet.

The land otter is one of the most widely distributed fur-bearing animals in Alaska, unless we except the fox. Its skin is highly valued, and is now utilized in the manufacture of an imitation seal skin. The land otter is found on the whole coast of Alaska, from the southern boundary to Norton sound. Within the Arctic circle it is confined to the upper portions of the rivers emptying into Kotzebue sound and the Arctic ocean; and it is also found along the whole course of the Yukon, and, as far as known, in nearly all parts of the Alaska peninsula, the Kadiak archipelago, and the coast from Mt. St. Elias to the southern boundary.

There has been a great decline, both in the supply and demand for beaver, during the last fifty years. Once it was the most important among the fur-bearing animals of continental Alaska. This animal has frequently suffered from the excessive and prolonged cold of the Arctic winter, in the interior country north of Cook inlet and the Yukon. The ice in the river and lakes has formed so rapidly, and to such a thickness at times, that the animals found it impossible to keep open the approaches to their dwellings under water, and died of starvation before spring. Hundreds of putrifying carcasses have been found by natives in the beaver lodges. Old beaver dams scattered over the continental portion of Alaska testify to the former abundance of the animal. Though now hundreds are taken where formerly thousands were captured, and notwithstanding the demand has lessened, the supply has not increased.

When the Hudson's Bay Company were lords of the entire Northwest American continent, the skins of these animals represented the value of an English shilling, and were used and accepted as common currency. The present price of a beaver skin of average size, in Alaska, is from six to twelve dollars. The Indians of the interior and a few of the Eskimo tribes look upon the flesh of the beaver as a great delicacy. It is a dish which they always set before honored guests, and is also much used in festivities. The long incisors of the beaver are made into chisels, small adzes and other tools, for the working of wood and bone.

The brown bear, a huge, shaggy animal, is found in nearly every section of the territory. The northern limit of its habitat is about sixty-seven degrees north latitude. It prefers an open, swampy country to the timber. The brown bear is an expert fisher, and during the salmon season it frequents all the rivers, and their tributaries, emptying into Bering sea and the North Pacific. At the end of the annual salmon run, it retreats to the tundra, where berries and small game are plentiful. This animal has been called the road-maker of Alaska, for not only are swampy plains, leading to the easiest fording places of streams and rivers, intersected by his paths, but the hills and ridges of mountains are also marked by his footsteps. The largest specimens are found at Cook inlet. On its west side they can be seen in herds of twenty five or thirty. From the fact that their skins are not very valuable, and also that they are of a fierce disposition, they are little hunted. Before attempting to kill one the native hunter invariably addresses a few complimentary remarks to his intended victim.

The Thlinkits have a tradition, told them by the shamans, that the brown bear is a man who has assumed the shape of an animal. The tradition relates that this secret of nature first became known through the daughter of a chief. The girl went into the woods to gather berries, and incautiously spoke in terms of ridicule of a bear, whose traces she observed in her path. In punishment for her levity, she was decoyed into the bear's lair and there compelled to marry him and assume the form of a bear herself. After her husband and her ursine child had been killed by her Thlinkit brethren, she returned to her home in her former shape and related her adventures. In deference to this generally received superstition, when the natives run across bear tracks in

the woods, they immediately say the most charming and complimentary things of bears in general, and their visitor in particular.

The black bear generally confines himself to timber and mountain regions. It exists on a few islands in Prince William sound, and on Kadiak island, and is found on rivers emptying into the Arctic, and is plentiful southward to the valley of the Yukon. The skins command high prices, and are increasing in value yearly. The animals are shy, and great skill and patience are required to hunt them. Like the brown bear, they are expert fishers, wading into the streams and, as a salmon comes along, they strike with dextrous paw and land their fish on the bank, where it furnishes a toothsome feast. Unlike the brown bear, however, the natives do not fear them in the least. The glossiest and largest of black bear skins come from the St. Elias Alpine range and Prince William sound, but the black bear never attains the size of his brown relative.

The red fox is found in every section of Alaska. In fact, this animal seems omnipresent. It varies in size and in the quality of its fur from a specimen as large as the high-priced Siberian fire fox, to the small, yellow-tinged creature that rambles fur-tively over the rocky islands of the Aleutian chain. Like a poor relation, he mingles persistently with his aristocratic cousins, the black and silver foxes, always managing, in course of time, to deteriorate the blood and tarnish the coat of his richer relative. His diet is heterogenous, fish, flesh and fowl being equally satisfactory to his taste; nor does he disdain shellfish, mussels, or the eggs of aquatic birds. He is rarely hunted or trapped by the natives, from the fact that his fur is cheap, and they never eat his flesh, except when driven to it from famine.

The king of the vulpine family is the black or silver fox. In the mountain fastnesses of the interior, and on the headwaters of the large rivers, he is found in his prime. He is of large size, with long, soft, silky fur, varying in color from the silver tint to the deep jet black, the latter being the most rare and highly prized. They are found along the boundaries between Alaska and British Columbia, in the country of the Chilkats, the Takus, the upper Copper river, upper Yukon, Tanana and Kuskokwim rivers. In the last named regions, skins may be bought from ten to fifteen dollars each, but in Southeast Alaska, where competition is strong, forty and fifty dollars each is frequently paid for them. Black foxes, of an inferior quality, are found on the

sea coast, on the shores of Norton sound, in the interior of Kotzebue sound, along the Yukon, and on the Colville river. They are quite plentiful on Kadiak island and most of the Aleutian islands; but they have been transported by man's agency to many of these points.

Along the southwestern coast there are many islands, removed from the shore a few miles, uninhabited and never visited by natives. In a number of instances white men have gathered a few pairs of blue, black and silver foxes, when young, from the natives, and taken them to these islands and turned them adrift. They arrange with the natives to carry food to them at stated periods, and they become, in a measure, tame. They increase very rapidly, and in three or four years become a source of profitable industry for the projectors of the enterprise. On the seal islands the propagation of the blue fox has been carried on for some years, only a certain number being killed each year. The blue fox was first discovered on the Aleutian islands in 1741. It has been protected against intermixture with other and inferior foxes, and the skins are of the finest quality and command a high price in the market.

The cross fox partakes of the distinguishing qualities of both the red and black, and is evidently the result of unrestricted intermixture, the connecting link between the plebian and the patrician. The skin of the cross fox is valued but little more than the red, from two to three dollars being paid for the best.

Almost the only high-priced fur found in the Yukon basin is the silver fox, and it forms a most important element in the trade of that region.

The white fox is found along the continental coast of Alaska, from the mouth of the Kuskokwim river northward to Point Barrow. Its fur is snowy white, soft and long, but is not durable; hence it does not command a high price in the market. The white fox is fearless, and will enter villages and dwellings in search of food, or out of mere curiosity. It will eat anything to satisfy hunger, and in the depth of winter the natives find it unsafe to leave any article of clothing, dog harness or boat material where these thieving little animals can find them.

Mink are plentiful on the coast, but not on the islands, excepting those of Prince William sound. They are also abundant on the Yukon and many other rivers. The spell of fashion has

made this skin of but little value. But within the past two years it has become more popular, and in a few years it may be as fashionable as when, a score or more years ago, it was the pride of every woman to possess a cape made from the fur of these pretty animals.

The polar bear is found only on the Arctic coast where there are large bodies of ice. With the moving ice fields, he enters, and leaves the waters of Bering sea. From fifty to one hundred of these animals are killed yearly, principally by the natives. It sometimes happens, when a whale that has been struck by a harpoon and not killed, in time dies and is washed ashore, the polar bears will come from all directions, drawn by the scent of the carcass, and feed on the blubber. Natives then come upon them with their crude weapons and slay them in large numbers.

The lynx is found in the wooded mountains, and wolves, both grey and white, are plentiful, but rarely killed.

Muskrats abound all over Alaska, and rabbits and marmots are killed for their flesh; the natives use the skins of the former for clothing. Especially is this true in the Arctic region, as the reindeer, the animal that formerly supplied them with skins for clothing, are fast disappearing.

Wolverines are plentiful on the upper Yukon and the lake sections. The skins are rarely exported, as a ready market is found among the inhabitants of the coast region of the Yukon and Kuskokwim, who prefer this shaggy, piebald fur to any other trimming for their wearing apparel. This skin is very highly prized among the Eskimo, as it serves as an excellent protection for their faces against the severe blasts, when sewed around their hoods.

Deer are very abundant, especially in Southeast Alaska, where, in winter, they are recklessly slaughtered for their hides, when driven to the coast by long continued snow. So reckless has this slaughter become that there is great danger of their being exterminated, unless Congress passes a law prohibiting the exportation of deer hides from the territory for a number of years. Deer form a large supply of food for the natives of Southeast Alaska; and the wanton manner in which they are killed bids fair to eliminate a food product of vast importance. They are hunted, in the rutting season, by a call made from a blade of grass placed between two strips of wood, which produces a very

clever imitation of the cry of the deer. This call leads them to the ambushed hunter; and so deceptive is it that it is not unusual to get a second shot should the first fail. The wolves play great havoc with the deer; and it is remarkable that they exist in such numbers among so many ruthless enemies.

Moose, cariboo and deer are found in the upper Yukon country, and especially on the White river moose are reported by the natives to be plentiful, and of large size.

The deer of the Arctic and sub-Arctic regions have been confounded with the reindeer of other localities. While they certainly belong to the same family they are what is called the barren ground cariboo, which differs from the upland cariboo and domesticated reindeer in being smaller in body and horns.

The mountain sheep and goat are found along the highest mountains of the coast and in the interior, in droves of twenty or more. They seem to prefer the highest altitudes and most precipitous steeps. Their wool is long and fine, and when nicely cleansed and tanned makes beautiful rugs. The horns of the sheep are made into bowls and ladles by the natives; and many rare and beautiful pieces worked up in this way find ready purchasers in tourists.

Bald and gray eagles are numerous throughout Southeast Alaska, and are also found, to some extent, in the interior wherever there is large timber. The natives kill them in large numbers and pluck the feathers, leaving nothing but the down. When cleansed the skins are sewn together, about thirty of them being required to make a robe, which is, at once, rich and beautiful.

Humming birds, in large numbers, having the delicate plumage of those found in warmer climates, flit from bush to bush in Southeast Alaska. Native boys tie small pieces of red flannel on a limb, and cover them thickly with pitch. The bright color attracts the tiny birds, who alight on the flannel. Their little feet adhere so tenaciously to the pitch that they cannot extricate themselves, so they become an easy prey to the youngsters who trap them, only to worry them to death with savage cruelty.

In all the waters of Alaska, whether in the southeastern country, the interior, or Arctic regions, ducks and geese in every variety are found in vast numbers. Alaska appears to be especially adapted as a natural breeding ground. The smaller varieties



JONEAU.

of land and timber birds are as numerous as the water fowl, and the graceful swan are found in large numbers in many parts of the territory.

In Arctic Alaska the disappearance of the snow and ice is immediately followed by the arrival of birds from the south in large numbers, and, in a few weeks, the Eſkimo revel in the variety and number of eggs found among the grass and tundra. Besides the wholesale robbing of nests for eggs the young fledglings are eaten by the Eſkimos with a keen relish. Their stay is brief, however, for none, save the most hardy of the Arctic birds, remain to pass the long months of winter in this region.

It may be interesting, while noting some of the resources of Alaska, to mention some of its exports since the United States acquired possession; to demonstrate the wisdom of the purchase and show that the vast and varied resources of our great northern possession are worthy of more than a passing word.

In this connection, also, it may be interesting to refer to executive document number thirty-six, of the House of Representatives, second session, Forty-first Congress, 1869, which is based upon the report of a special agent of the Treasury Department,

It says, that at six per cent. interest on the seven million two hundred thousand dollars paid for the territory, together with the expense of maintaining the government there, would amount in twenty-five years to the sum of forty-four million dollars. And that, with the most liberal estimate of income from the fur seal islands, and from customs duties, an amount not to exceed one hundred and ten thousand dollars per annum could be realized. And from no other source but a most extraordinary condition of circumstances, such as the discovery of large deposits of mineral, could any material increase in revenue be looked for.

The agent's estimate of the revenue was as erroneous in the matter of the fur seal islands as in other directions. For from this source alone there has been paid into the national treasury nearly nine million dollars.

The following table, carefully compiled from official records, will show how far the "extraordinary circumstances" have conspired to make the purchase of Alaska not only a shrewd piece

of diplomatic sagacity, but that Seward's "ice box" has proven a most profitable investment:

Furs	\$53,000,000 00
Canned salmon	10,000,000 00
Whalebone	10,000,000 00
Gold and silver	6,000,000 00
Whale oil	3,000,000 00
Codfish	1,600,000 00
Salted salmon	800,000 00
Ivory	160,000 00
Total	<u>\$84,560,000 00</u>

CHAPTER IX.

THE TOURIST ROUTE.

THE tourist route to Alaska extends from Seattle to Sitka, and lies over a course which, for nearly twelve hundred miles, is almost entirely through narrow channels bordered by high mountains that completely prevent the sea from becoming rough. If an occasional glimpse of the waters of the North Pacific ocean were not obtained, when passing from the shelter of one island behind the precipitous shores of another, one would never realize that he was enjoying all the pleasures of a sea voyage, with but few of the discomforts.

The Pacific Coast Steamship Company of San Francisco, extended its route northward to this country some ten years ago. And upwards of five thousand tourists, each year since, have seen an endless panorama of scenery unfolded to their view throughout the entire distance.

The vessels are large, comfortable and convenient, and the appointments throughout, are especially adapted for the sort of trip made ; and every facility is afforded for complete enjoyment, and every opportunity given to see and learn all there is to discover, on this greatest of tourists' routes

A semi-monthly mail is carried by the Pacific Coast Steamship Company to the different points on this route, and besides the steamers thus employed, the palatial steamer "Queen," three thousand tons burden, having accommodations for two hundred and fifty first-class passengers, makes semi-monthly trips during June, July and August. There is no time in the year, however, when communication to all points on this route is not made regularly twice each month, but during December, January and February a single steamer only is necessary to take care of the traffic.

While the universal verdict of those who are so fortunate as to be able to take a trip to Alaska is that it is one round of charm-

ing surprises, and the scenery superior to that found in any other part of the civilized world, the great secret of the popularity of the Alaskan trip is the courteous and attentive treatment received from the employes. The masters have all been on this route for many years, and they never forget, for an instant, to afford the passengers every opportunity to see and enjoy to the fullest extent all sights and pleasures possible.

The most favorable time for making the trip is from the first of June until the last of August; yet a month earlier or later presents many opportunities for enjoyment. The long periods of twilight which prevail in this latitude, in the spring and fall months, strikes one as strange, and a better view is often afforded in the subdued light of "early morn and dewy eve."

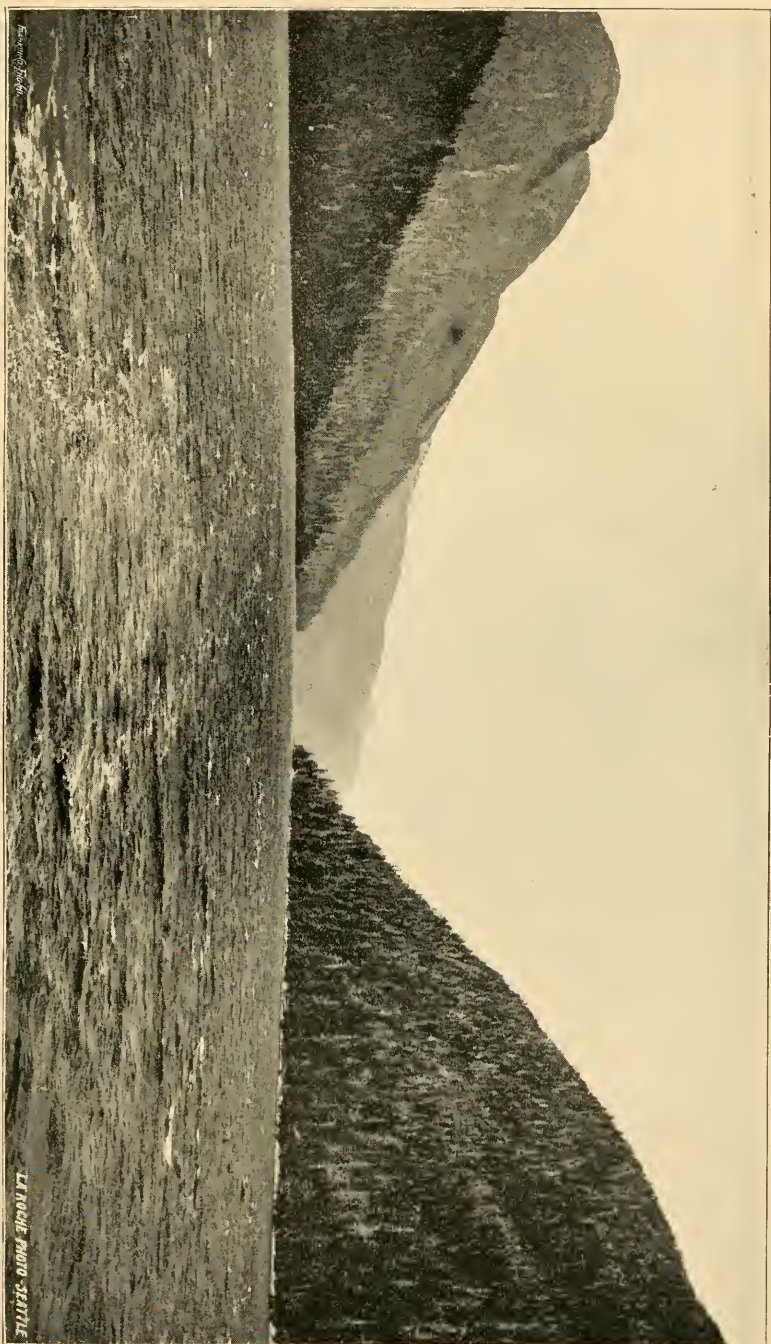
The dry subject of enumeration of the articles needed on this trip may be abbreviated by the simple suggestion that one should carry such articles as are usually needed on a journey of two or three weeks, being careful to have clothing that is warm and suitable for an unusually rainy country.

Seattle, which bears the illustrious title of the Queen City of the Northwest, is situated upon an indentation of Puget sound, forming a perfect harbor, almost circular in shape, and named Elliott bay.

It is a substantial, well-built city, having a population of more than sixty thousand, and it presents in every way, the air and activity of a live, bustling and enterprising city. Although founded 'way back in the fifties, the real growth of Seattle dates from 1889, when the entire business portion of the city was laid in ashes, and almost every vestige of the early uncouth, ill-built town was swept away.

The wooden buildings and shacks that lined the business streets have been replaced by modern brick and stone blocks, elegant in construction and imposing in appearance. The city is modern in every respect. It has a magnificent system of water works and sewers, is well lighted and has good streets, over which there is a complete network of street railways reaching to the different suburban towns, and to the many beautiful parks and lakeside resorts, for which the city is justly noted and which are the admiration of the tourist.

Lake Washington, the pride and delight of Seattleites, is a beautiful sheet of water, lying east of the city, about twenty-five miles long, and averaging three in width. Its shores are dotted



GRENVILLE CHANNEL, ON TOURIST ROUTE.

LA ROCHE 1900 32171

with summer residences, and its bosom bears numberless pleasure craft of varied form and design, while many steamers ply the lake for commercial purposes. The lake is reached by four lines of street railways, two cable and two electric. Adjoining Lake Washington, and but a short distance north, is Lake Union, a smaller but fine lake, surrounded by pleasant homes; and still another beautiful sheet of water is Green lake, northeast of the city. All of these lakes contain abundance of trout and other fish. Sixty miles away, to the south, snow-covered Mt. Rainier raises its lofty head, standing hoary and magnificent. It overlooks the great inland sea called Puget Sound, and the many cities and villages that thrive upon its shores.

Among the numerous parks within easy distance of Seattle are Ravenna, Woodland, Madrona, Leschi, Madison Street and Kinnear, beautiful natural parks to which art has leant completing touches. The city has excellent schools, and the different religious denominations are well represented, there being fifty-six places of worship in the city. There are also two opera houses; the Seattle Theatre is one of the finest on the Pacific coast. The city is undoubtedly the commercial metropolis of the northwest. It is the entrepot for an immense stretch of country rich in lumber, coal and other natural resources; the wonderful shipment of lumber being the most important industry, although the coal business is large and steadily growing. Its citizens are enterprising, and the unanimity with which all labor for the common advancement of the city's interest has often been commented upon with praise.

Tacoma, called by its citizens the "City of Destiny," is situated on Commencement Bay thirty miles south of Seattle, and is a point often visited by tourists en route to Alaska. Tacoma is an enterprising city of some forty-five thousand people, and has had a phenomenal growth. It is the second city in size and importance in the State and is modern in all respects, having many business enterprises, manufactures, electric and cable railways, schools, churches, etc. South of the city about thirty miles distant, rises Mt. Rainier, but in Tacoma the name "Rainier" is never heard, except from a stranger or perhaps a Seattle man. Here it is lovingly referred to as "Mt. Tacoma," and the mountain with the dual name has been for years the source of much good natured badinage between the two rival cities of Puget Sound, as well as a source of amusement and

sometimes of perplexity to those not acquainted with the contention over the name of the grand old sentinel which overlooks the great inland sea.

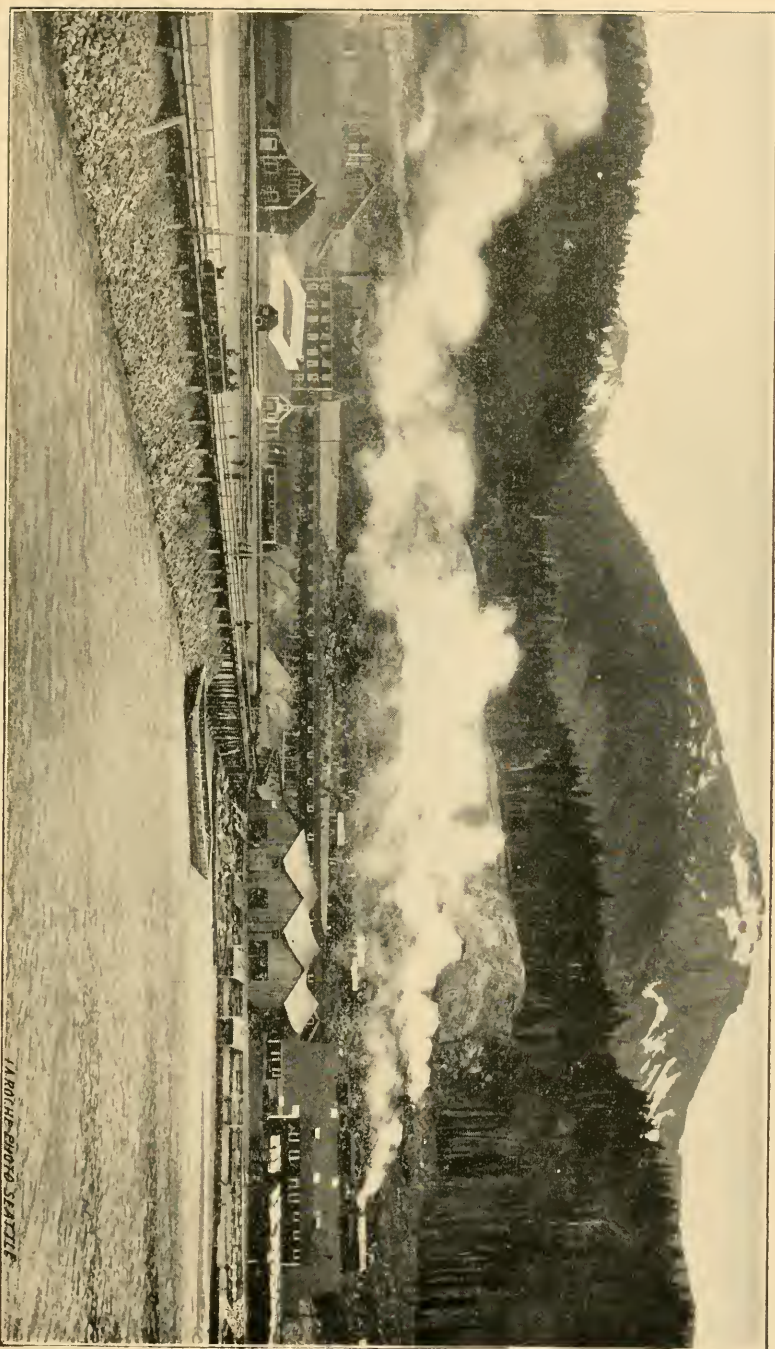
A journey of forty miles on the waters of Puget Sound brings the vessel to its first stop on the route—at Port Townsend—having a population of thirty-five hundred people. It is most picturesquely located, having a beautiful harbor with water of sufficient width and depth to permit the largest ocean vessels to sail up to its wharves. The business portion of the town lies principally along the water front and the residences occupying a level plateau fifty feet or so above, affording a charming view of the Sound for many miles. On a commanding spot is a beautiful stone customs building just completed by the government at a cost of two hundred thousand dollars, and a half mile further to the west stands a strikingly handsome court house. This is the last port of entry in United States territory until Alaska is reached, and all vessels clear here before starting on their long voyage to the north. At present the only communication with the Puget Sound cities is by several lines of steamers each day, but there is good prospect of the railroad now running but a score or so miles to the south being extended so as to afford direct railroad communication with Olympia and the east.

The Alaska boat usually takes on passengers in greater or less numbers at this port, discharging also freight and passengers for San Francisco, on its return voyage.

A delightful ride of three hours across the Strait of Juan de Fuca, where sometimes a little motion of the vessel is felt should wind blow from the ocean, seventy-five miles to the west, brings us to Victoria, where a wait of an hour or so affords opportunity for those who are desirous of doing so, to step on English soil and admire the handsome buildings, neat gardens and grass plats, and observe the manners of a community whose every appearance stamps them as wholly and essentially English.

Just across the little strip of water, to the north, the staff bearing aloft the British flag can be seen, and under its shadow small squads of marines are distinguished going through a brief guard manoeuvre, while an occasional blast from a bugle echoes a call across the water from the English naval station of the north Pacific at Esquimalt.

When the steamer is again under way the journey to Alaska really begins, and the steady puffing of the engine and the vibra-



"THE GREAT TREADWELL MILL."

LARSEN PHOTO SEATTLE

tion of the ship are felt for three days, while the six hundred and twenty-five miles before reaching the first stopping place in Alaska, twenty miles across the boundary, are traveled.

It is not unusual, however, for the steamer to put in at Nanaimo, a town about sixty-five miles north of Victoria, on the east side of Vancouver island, for coal. Extensive deposits of a superior quality of bituminous coal are here located, large quantities of which are shipped to San Francisco and Alaska. About two thousand men are employed in these mines, and the coal is sold at three dollars per ton. Three miles north of Nanaimo, Departure Bay is also frequently visited for coal by Alaskan steamers. Vancouver island is about three hundred miles long by about fifty wide, and is the largest of the many islands on the coast of the North Pacific. It is densely wooded throughout, and its sides in many places are high and precipitous. The dense growth of timber and underbrush is interspersed with many little streams of water which, flowing downward, together with the deep indentations extending inland, lend beauty and variety to the scene.

One hundred miles through the Gulf of Georgia, between Vancouver and Valdez islands, the narrow pass—Seymour Narrows—is reached. It has a tremendous current, and at ebb and flood tide is a veritable maelstrom, with whose swift flowing waters the most powerful machinery is unable to cope. At low tide, a shattered series of rocky ledges are seen, with torrents of water rushing between and over them, and the whirling cauldron is enough to strike terror to the heart of the most daring navigator. The passage is always made when the tide is nearly full. The captain of an Alaskan steamer, on one occasion, lost control of his vessel here. It reeled and staggered as the mad waters lashed against its sides, and sought to drag it into the boiling sea. It swept around in the torrent, but finally drifted into less turbulent waters and passed through without encountering any damage.

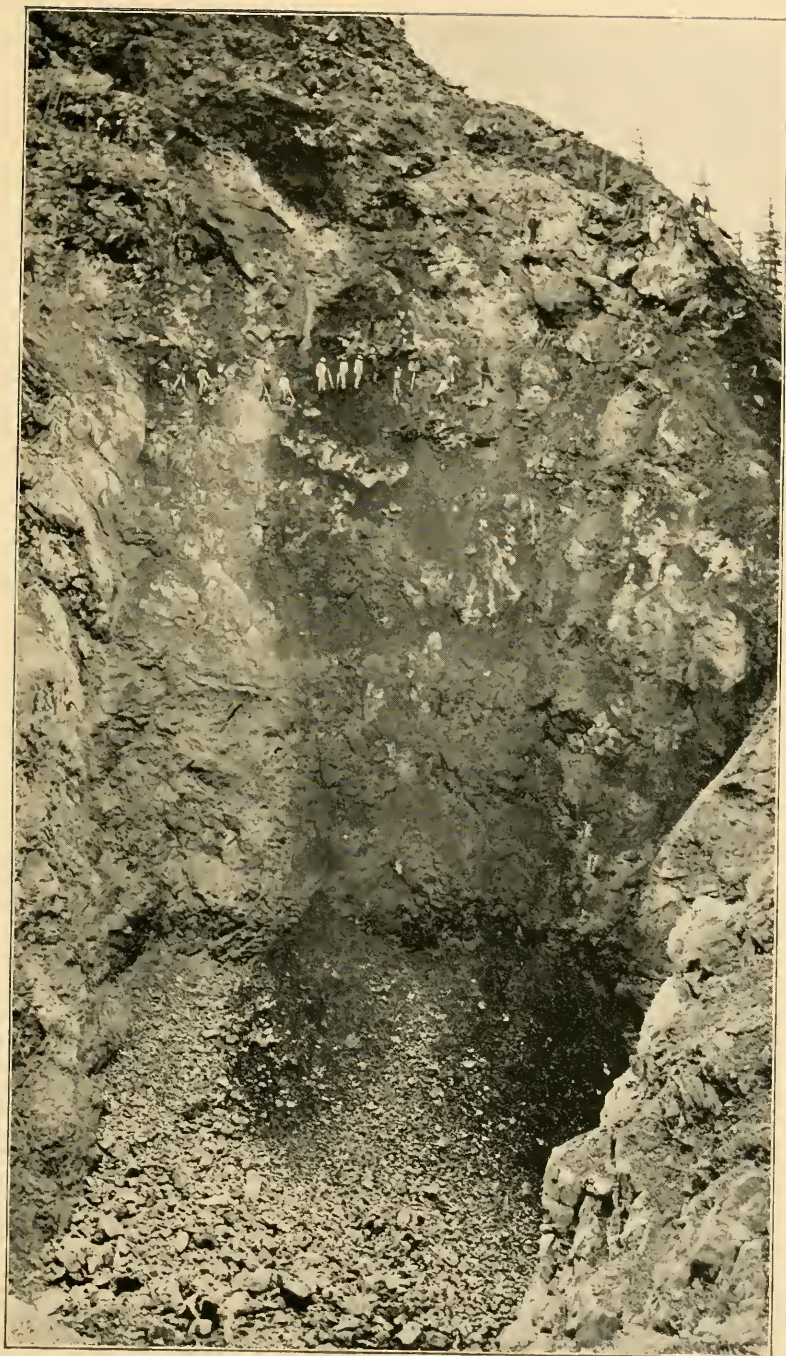
The United States steamer *Saranac* was wrecked here in 1875. She was caught in the rush of waters, but succeeded in reaching the shore of Vancouver island, although after her officers and crew had safely landed, she was drawn into the whirlpool and sank out of sight. The United States steamer *Wachusett*, seven years later, had an exciting experience in these waters, but finally stemmed the current and passed out, after having a portion

of her keel swept off by the fierce current. Many smaller vessels were partially or wholly wrecked before the dangers of these narrows became known.

Johnstone strait for fifty-five miles, and Broughton strait for fifteen miles—immediately to the north—both pass between land more or less abrupt, and the picturesque scenery encountered before Seymour Narrows is reached, is again presented. Johnstone strait opens into Queen Charlotte Sound, which for fifty miles presents an expanse of water fifteen miles or so across, until it in turn meets the waters of Hecate strait. The broad expanse of the ocean is seen only while the ship is speeding over the thirty-five miles intervening, before she enters the landlocked shores of Fitz-Hugh Sound. From here to the end of the inland channel at Sitka, with the exception of fifteen miles at Milbank Sound, where in a south wind, and again at Dixon Entrance, the water may become rough for an hour or so, to add, as it were, a little spice to the smooth sailing which might otherwise become monotonous.

Beginning here, the route is one continuous chain of labyrinthian passages, winding hither and thither through narrow defiles, with mountains rising many hundred feet on both sides, covered from base to peak with a dense coat of fir, whose outline is mirrored in the water below. "The Mystic Maze" would be an appropriate name to apply to this enchanted route. Oftimes the prow of the ship is headed for what appears to be a mountainous barricade, but a sudden turn reveals a continuation of the pathway, and an outlet to endless charming nooks and glassy waters.

The first glimpse of Alaska after emerging from Grenville channel, into the waters of Chatham sound which separates British, from American territory, is Tongas island, the home of a tribe of natives scarcely numbering three score, the remnant of a once numerous tribe. They occupy the site of old Fort Tongas which, during the first eight years after the acquisition, was the headquarters of a company of United States troops. No opportunity is afforded to examine the country in this vicinity save from the deck of the vessel. Thirty-five miles farther on Mary Island is sighted. The steamer blows a shrill whistle, the speed of the engine is slackened, and immediately, the stars and stripes are hoisted upon the staff of the Custom House. As soon as the anchor is lowered, the captain goes ashore to execute



THE TREADWELL LEDGE.

such papers as are necessary to comply with the laws and enable the vessel to proceed northward. At this station a deputy collector is taken aboard, who makes the trip to Sitka and return, and whose business it is to see that no whisky or other contraband goods are landed or taken on board the ship. An hour is spent here, when the machinery is set in motion and the vessel again swings on its course towards New Metlakahtla. This point is off the main route some fifteen miles, so it is only when there are goods to be discharged that the vessel pauses at one of the most interesting points on the whole journey. An approach to New Metlakahtla shows, quietly nestling on the side of a gentle slope of ground, stretching back from a long pebbly beach, two or three hundred houses, many of them neatly painted, with a church edifice, large school building, store, saw-mill and salmon canning establishment. There is nothing about the appearance of the place, until the faces of the residents are seen, to suggest that it is the home of the Chim-sy-an tribe of natives, whom Mr. Duncan brought from Old Metlakahtla a few years ago. Every branch of business pursued by whites, in towns of similar size, is here carried on, and the eight hundred and fifty or more people are thrifty and contented. In the chapter on the boundary dispute a more extended reference is made to Mr. Duncan and the people whom he has brought from the degradation of savagery to a high state of civilization.

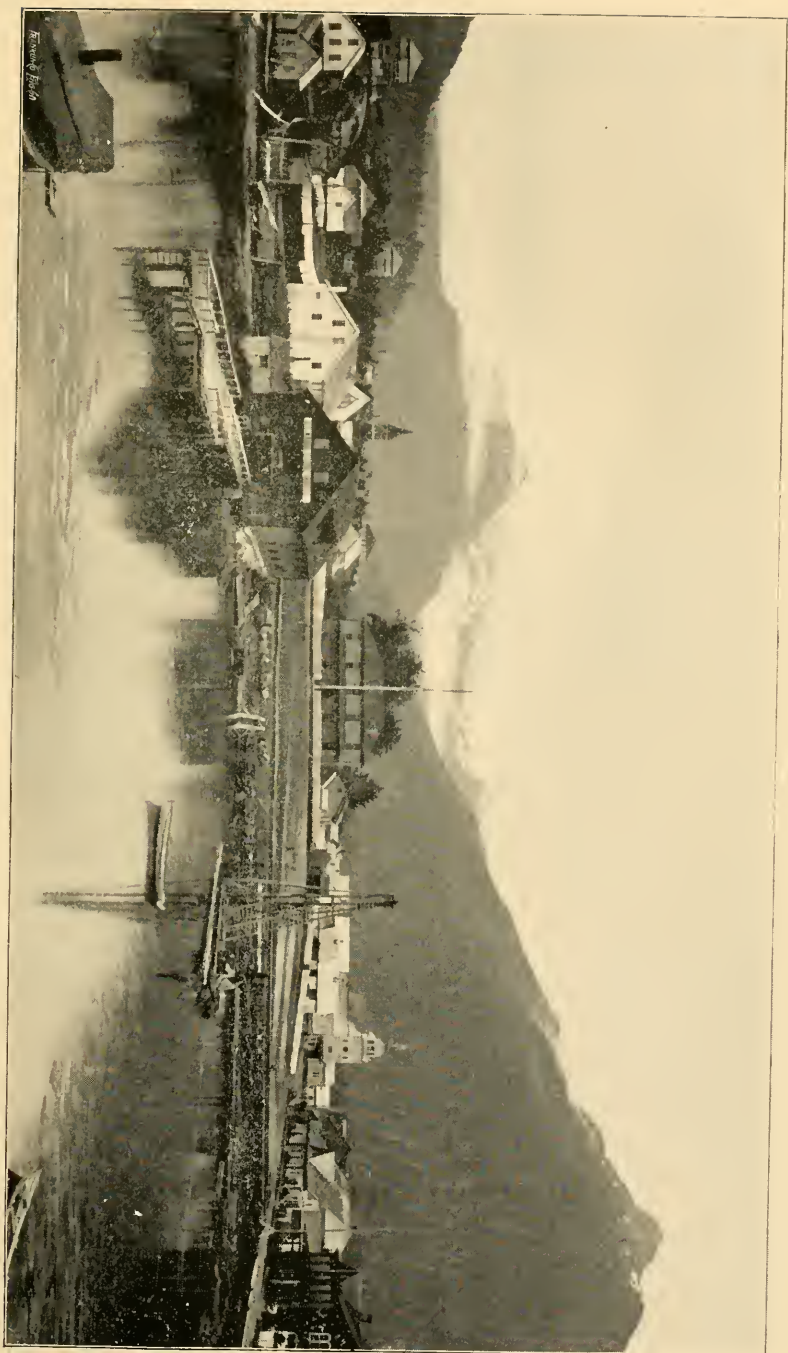
Retracing its course to Tongas Narrows, the steamer runs alongside of the wharf at Ketchikan. Six years ago this was the site of a salmon cannery, which was destroyed by fire. It is now a trading post, and salmon are salted in large numbers. Should it be the season for the salmon to run, the little stream which flows down through the hills to the east of the village, will be literally filled with the humpback variety. Here the first postoffice in Alaska is found, and the first glimpse of the Alaskan Indian, in his native state, is also obtained here.

A stop of an hour, and the steamer is ready to resume its course towards Loring. The twenty-five mile distance is covered in about three hours, and the seat of what was, until the past three years, one of the most prolific red salmon streams in all Alaska, is found picturesquely located on the western slope of a high mountain. For a number of years from fifteen to twenty thousand cases of red salmon were packed each year by this establishment, but a system of trapping prevailed by which the

fish were prevented from ascending to the lake above, and this has very nearly exhausted the species. The pack is now mostly of the humpback variety. Just back of the cannery the sparkling waters of Naha falls come thundering down fifty feet or more, and are considered the most beautiful of the many encountered along the tourist route.

At nine o'clock on the morning of the twenty-ninth day of August, 1889, the side-wheel steamer Ancon, which had for several years been engaged in carrying tourists to Alaska, in attempting to swing around, settled upon a reef within a few yards of the shore and, when the tide receded, broke in two and became a total wreck. The passengers were taken on their journey a few days afterward by another steamer. The accident was the means of affording them several days of amusement, which they enjoyed to the fullest extent.

From Loring to Fort Wrangel about ninety miles of charming scenery is passed, but no stop is made in that interval. Wrangel is the most picturesque as well as largest settlement yet visited. It has reached the phase in history when it lives only in the glory of "by-gone days." For a number of years following the purchase of Alaska, it was the winter rendezvous of miners, who were taking out thousands and hundreds of thousands of dollars in placer gold, at Cassiar and other British northwest territory mining camps, but these claims becoming exhausted, the life and activity of Wrangel also disappeared, until to-day a half hundred whites and two or three hundred natives occupy, with few exceptions, the same log buildings that were erected during the days when gold was almost as plentiful as water. Considerable business, however, is done here to-day. There are several stores whose customers are principally natives, with whom goods are exchanged for furs; a large sawmill; a bonded warehouse, through which British goods must pass before being shipped into the territory, up the Stikine river, four miles to the northeast; a Presbyterian church, and the offices of the United States deputy collector and commissioner. Wrangel pursues the even tenor of its way, apparently satisfied with the present, and with recollections of its more varied past. This town was named for Baron Wrangel, who, in 1831, was the Russian governor. Here he constructed a fort, and his troops defeated a party in league with the Hudson's Bay Company, who had encroached upon his territory to traffic with the natives. Soon after our acquisition



SITKA AT 10:30 P. M.

the fort was garrisoned by two companies of United States troops. The arrangement of the plat, with barracks and officers' quarters standing on either side of the square, gives evidence to-day of the time it was occupied by these representatives of the American army. Troops were withdrawn in 1870, but the garrison was again occupied by soldiers from 1875 to 1877, when all the troops were permanently withdrawn from Alaska.

It is usual for steamers going north to remain at Wrangel long enough to reach the entrance to Wrangel Narrows, twenty-five miles north at high tide. This is, indeed, one of the most interesting portions of the whole trip. The passage through the Narrows covers a distance of twenty-five miles. At half tide, a hundred ton vessel drawing six feet of water could not make the passage on account of ledges of rocks and boulders stretched across the whole passage. Hard-a-port! Starboard! Steady! are constantly heard from the captain as the ocean steamer is turned close around the buoys, that locate the shallow water and hidden reefs. While danger need not be apprehended in case of accident in this passage, for the waters do not surge through with the force that causes Seymour Narrows to be dreaded, yet the alertness of the officers, and the caution exercised in piloting the steamer, arrest the attention of the passengers, and give rise to expressions of admiration for the skill of the mariners, who have charge of the craft. Upon emerging from the Narrows a glimpse of the first glacier of any note is had. It bears the name of Patterson, and looms six thousand feet upward, while its serpentine form is seen winding over the mountain, and is finally eclipsed by the towering magnificence of the Devil's Thumb, pointing heavenward at an altitude of nine thousand feet. This, too, is lost to view, as the vessel bears westward to Cape Fanshaw, where the course is straight away for the metropolis of Alaska, seventy miles distant at the head of Gastineau channel.

On the right, twelve miles before reaching Juneau, Taku inlet opens into the channel. It is one of the favorite points of interest for tourists, and the glaciers winding down through the mountains, are visible for a long distance and pour into the inlet with a front of a mile or more.

The Taku river leading into the interior, is the stream Schwatka ascended on his last trip into Alaska, in the spring of 1891, and it is from the head of canoe navigation on this river that a party of British surveyors made explorations during the past winter

for the purpose of ascertaining the practicability of constructing a trail into the interior.

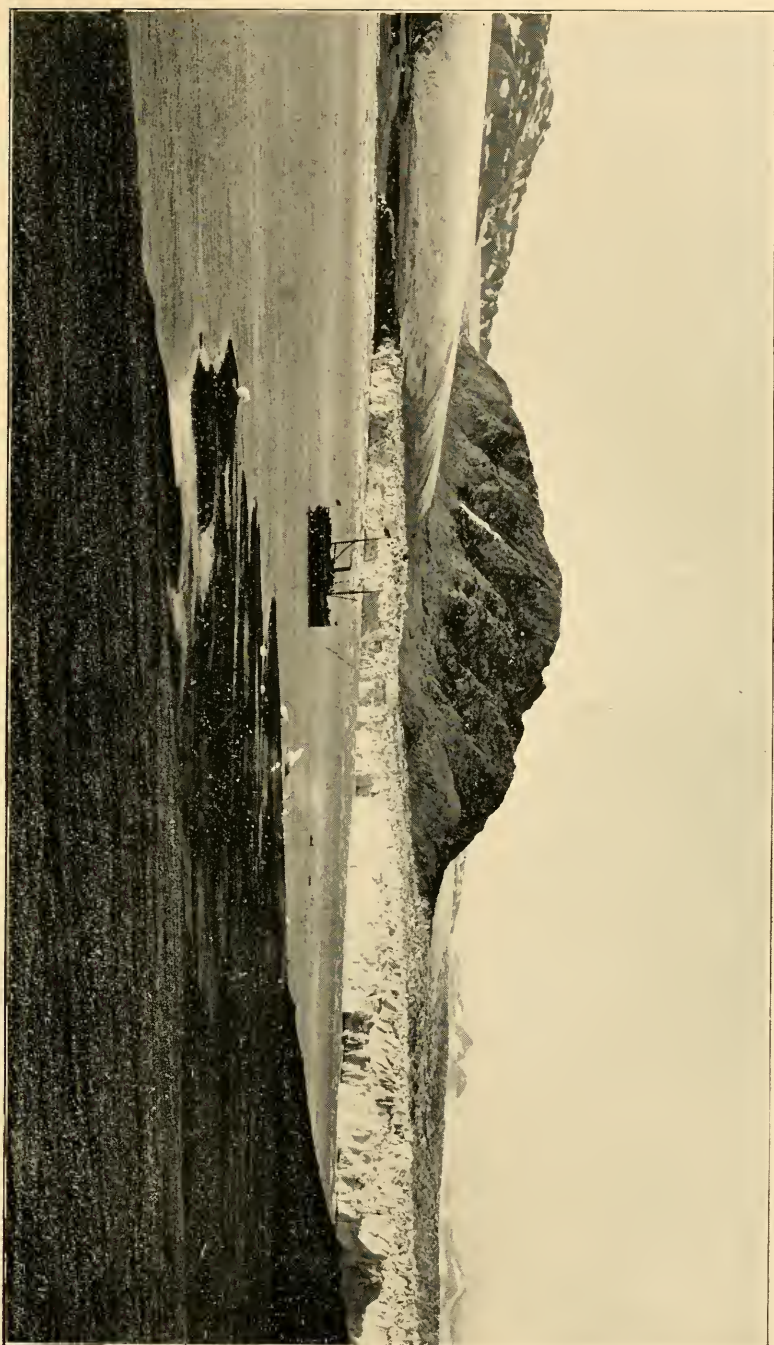
There is a natural route from this river to the Yukon of but ninety miles to water communication on the inside, but about thirty miles of that distance lies through a low, swampy country, that before it could be used, as a route, would have to be corduroyed.

The town of Juneau is located at the base of a mountain that rises almost perpendicularly for nearly three thousand feet, forming a most picturesque background to this little city. Juneau is an ideal mining camp. Every building in the town, and every inhabitant, bears the aspect of activity and prosperity peculiar to live mining camps. It has but few streets, and they are crooked and narrow.

With but few exceptions, the inhabitants have not found time to clear their lots of the stumps or gnarled roots that litter, as well as make a rustic ornament for every door yard. But there are a number of handsome residences and neat business houses; and a system of water works that draws its supply from the purest of mountain streams, and an electric light plant which for four months of the year, gives way to the brilliant light of heaven's sun, taking its turn again for four months in the winter, excepting only a few hours at mid-day.

All roads lead to Rome, it is said, and all routes in Alaska lead to Juneau. The Yukon miner comes here to outfit for his long and hazardous trip into the interior; all travelers who come to Alaska, whether for business or pleasure, and even the United States Court, if in session at Sitka, the capital, comes here for nineteen-twentieths of its jurors, without whom it could not transact business. Juneau is rightly called the metropolis. Whether she will retain this prestige remains to be seen. If so, one of two things must occur. She must plane down the sides of her mountains or erect sky-scraping buildings with elevators to accommodate her populace, for nearly every foot of available ground is already occupied.

The population of Juneau numbers about two thousand souls; and the enterprise of the people, and volume of business, are shown by the support given to the three newspapers here published. The *Mining Record*, the oldest paper published here, is devoted especially to the mining interests of the country. The *Searchlight*, a metropolitan-appearing journal, in general



FRONT OF MUIR GLACIER.

LaRoche Photo, Seattle, Wash.

make-up and contents, is a credit to the city and its enterprising proprietor. The *News*, also an excellent publication, is more local in its character, and helps to make a trio of weekly papers which vie with each other in the publication of reliable information concerning this great territory.

As the steamer turns in its course from the metropolis towards the capital, it retraces its way for twelve miles, and on the right, two miles from Juneau, passes the works which constitute the great Treadwell mine. Dense columns of smoke are seen issuing from the chlorination works which are here burning that part of the ore which the batteries have not been able to separate from the gold. Its poisonous vapors that the humid atmosphere has crowded down the mountain sides have bleached the timber growing there almost as white as the ragged and jagged ledges laid bare by the incessant explosions of dynamite that occur in this mine day and night from one year's end to another.

At the end of Douglas island the ship's prow is turned northward towards Lynn canal; but which arm it ascends, whether Chilkoot or Chilkat inlet, depends upon the nature of the business calling the vessel thither. If to Chilkoot, a view is afforded of the country through which the miner starts with his pack over the portage of twenty-eight miles to the headwaters of that great river, the Yukon, and also, upon the left-hand side, the neat and attractive buildings of the Presbyterian mission at Haines.

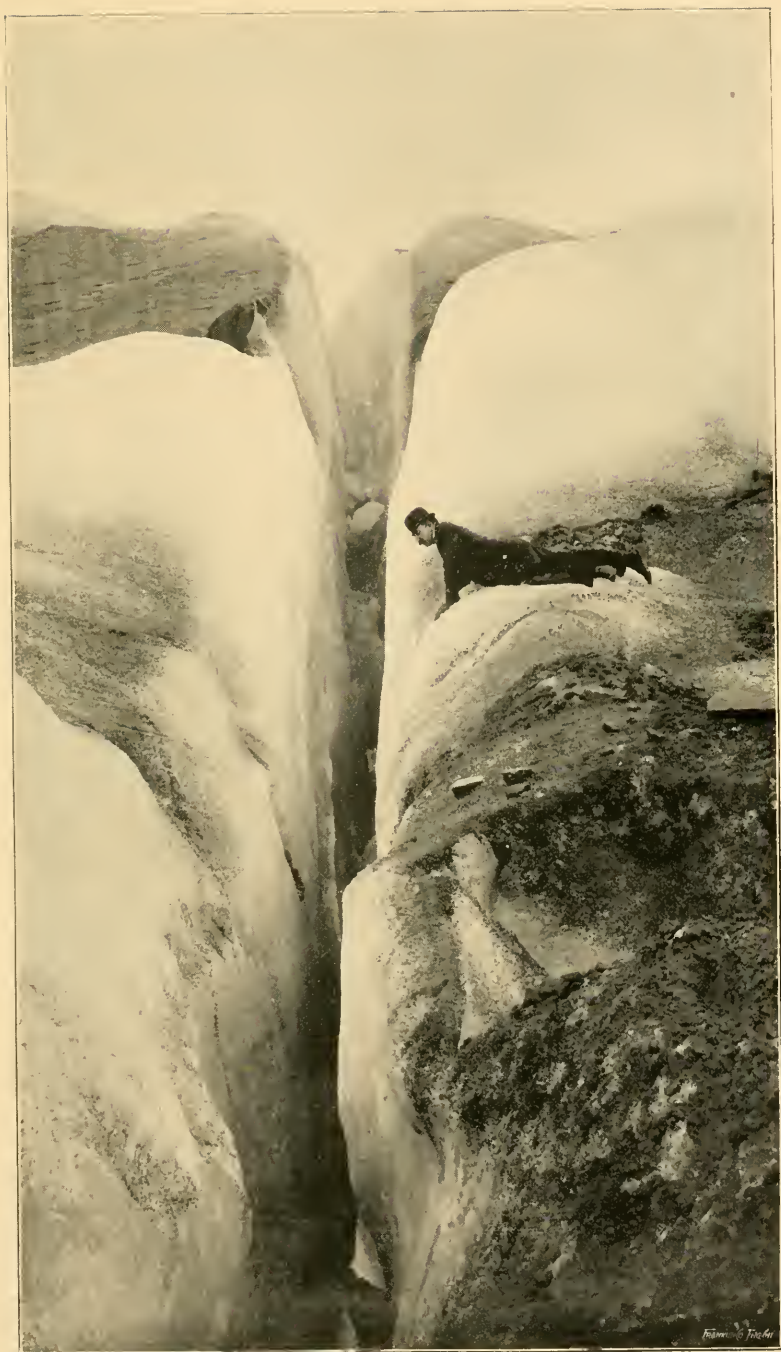
If the steamer has taken the Chilkat inlet, at the head of navigation, to the right-hand is the town of Chilkat, whose location is marked by a cannery, store and a few other buildings. Further to the left is the route recently located by Mr. Jack Dalton, who has discovered a way into the interior of Alaska, whence the Yukon river may be reached over a country having a gradual ascent and descent, with no high mountains to interfere, thus forming a natural route for the construction of a railroad into the great interior. Everybody but the projector and his native employes remains yet in blissful ignorance of the nature of the country passed over. But it is certain that a native in Dalton's employ traveled on foot all the way from the Yukon river to Chilkat, last fall, in fourteen days. This spring Mr. Dalton established a pack train over this route, and upwards of twenty horses are now engaged in transporting supplies for his trading posts in the interior.

As the ship turns about to resume its course, Davidson glacier appears on the right. This is the first good view of a glacier yet had, and it looks as if a mighty river winding down from the mountain had suddenly congealed while pouring its torrent into the sea below. Davidson glacier has its head a few miles to the west, and is a spur of the series of glaciers that form the frigid bulwarks of ice in Glacier bay, whose fronts rise perpendicularly from the water. The Davidson glacier, however, slopes gradually down leaving a moraine covered with low willow and alder trees.

A distance of sixty miles to the south is made before the ship's course is changed into Icy strait, and is now among floating ice, which may be encountered in such quantities as to impede the progress of the ship through the entrance into the bay. The prows of all the vessels are protected with heavy timbers, and one experiences the shock caused by the crashing of the vessel into the bergs and floating ice as it pursues its course. When within the bay it is in a sea of floating ice, dodging its way through the heavy "pack" past Willoughby island, until it comes to anchor within two miles of the front of the celebrated Muir glacier. The island just referred to is named after Professor Willoughby, one of the early pioneers of California. As a boy he was in the vanguard of the "forty-niners;" picked up nuggets as large as walnuts at Suter's mill with Marshall; moved along into Fraser river, Cariboo and Cassiar mining camps; and was among the early placer miners in the camps of Southeast Alaska. He piloted the first vessel into Glacier bay, and was there when Professor Muir made his first investigation of the wonderful river of ice that bears his name.

Professor Willoughby is a typical frontiersman. He is said to have made more extensive explorations in Southeast Alaska than any other man, and to have found more good mineral deposits than he knows what to do with. His claims on Admiralty island are among the most promising quartz locations in the territory, and the sale of this property will probably bring him more money than he will be able to spend.

My first visit to Alaska, in the spring of 1889, was in the interest of newspapers. I was looking for just such a person as Professor Willoughby to furnish me information about the country. His acquaintance supplied me with means for building up a series of letters upon a subject that made them the most profit-



CREVASSE ON TOP OF MUIR GLACIER.

LaRoche, Photo, Seattle, Wash.

able newspaper articles I ever wrote, and which appeared in many of the leading papers of the country, The "Silent City" of Glacier bay helped also to make it more noted, brought thousands of dollars to the person who claimed to have photographed a "mirage of an unknown city," in this bay, from the sale of photographs of the same, and caused a vast amount of discussion on the subject of mirages. Many persons pronounced it a "fake," others a good joke, while some looked upon it in the light of a phenomenon that it was reasonable should occur, on account of the peculiar condition of the atmosphere that prevails in this locality.

If I thought the story a monstrous and ridiculous fake, gratitude to the man who furnished me with the sinews from which to weave the interesting tale, would prevent my denouncing it as such; and, if I knew it to be a joke, I would consider it the most interesting, as well as the least harmless, that has ever come under my observation.

Two years previous to my arrival at Juneau, Professor Willoughby had been exhibiting a negative of a picture which he said he had succeeded in taking of a city which appeared above the face of the glacier in the longest days of each year, and which was brought to his attention by the natives, who called it the silent city. He procured a camera, and in three successive years made the journey in a canoe with natives, and each time was able to make an exposure, but the plate that had been exposed the third year proved upon development to be the only one that contained a picture of the city. It was a weird-looking negative and, contemplating it while the professor told the story with the utmost earnestness and sincerity, one could not but be interested and inclined to believe it to be true. He said that the city always appeared as if suspended in the air, just in front of the Fairweather range of mountains. The atmosphere was so clear that the peaks many miles to the north were distinctly seen, and every ridge and wallow and curve of the icy crust that enveloped them could not have been more clearly defined had they been but a stone's throw away. That while asleep in his tent one morning, a native called to him excitedly "to get up;" and upon looking to the north he saw a strange looking object hanging over the sides of the mountain, and following the direction of a stream or glow of light which seemed to radiate from the range squarely down upon the glaciers at the head of the bay.

Gradually it became more distinct, and soon assumed the appearance of a city of immense proportions, stretching out into the distance until its furthestmost limits were lost to view. The style of architecture was new to him. Buildings of massive dimensions extended in solid and unbroken blocks as far as the eye could reach. The solemn walls of cathedrals arose almost to the skies, and his imagination reveled in silvery music, chanted to a chorus of tinkling bells, that was wafted out from the frescoed aisles through the openings of gorgeously painted windows. The entire limits of the city were confined within a halo of light, dense, yet transparent, pouring its soft glow upon roof and wall and window in glorious transformation. To the right and left a range of mountains, covered with the garb of winter, formed the background. The tops of buildings, and the spires of churches, appeared to pierce its ghostly robes, yet not one breath of their chilled presence extended within the portals of the city. Again, he seemed to hear the bells from the steeples of a hundred churches mingling sweet and happy melody; yet, within the whole length and breadth of this boundless city, not one soul could be seen. Not even a shadow darkened the light for an instant. All was silent as the grave, when suddenly the vision began to move away. Its glories and grandeur lured him with a fascination which he could not resist. But, as he walked forward, it seemed to recede with even pace. Gradually, though he quickened his steps to get within the silent portals before it was too late, it was wafted into space and finally lost to view.

In the summer of 1889 I accompanied Professor Willoughby to Glacier bay, and spent six weeks in exploring the glaciers and surrounding country. Anxious to see the spot where he claimed to have witnessed this wonderful sight, although, I feel free to say, I did not live in very high expectations of gazing upon the silent city. One day we ascended the side of a mountain to a level space affording a glorious view of the whole bay. He took me to a pile of rocks, laid carefully one upon another, to a height of perhaps five feet. Slowly he commenced to throw off rock after rock until an opening was made in the center, and, inserting his arm, he drew out what appeared to be a scroll or book made from several leaves of birch bark. It was badly mildewed, and upon unrolling it a pencil fell to the ground. The half-dozen pages looked bright, however, and contained a record stating



THE SILENT CITY.

that the object of three trips made to this locality, in as many different years, was to secure a photograph of the city.

During the six weeks I spent with Professor Willoughby, the relations between us, in camp and in our travels, were such as to encourage an exchange of confidences on many subjects, and although the subject of the silent city and mirages was often referred to, he never by word or implication gave me any reason to think that his story was other than a true one.

The city, after the lapse of some time, was finally identified as Bristol, England. In order for it to have appeared in the manner claimed, it must have been reflected a distance of several thousand miles.

Words can scarcely describe the awful grandeur of Muir glacier, whether viewed from the deck of a ship standing close to the front, which extends for two miles across and towers in scalloped and jagged surface two hundred and fifty feet high, or while walking on its top among thousands of seams and crevasses, which descend in yawning chasms to interminable depths. Is it any wonder that, when gazing at this spectacle, one is lost in awe as he sees a solid body of ice winding for many miles through mountain gorges, breaking off in irregular blocks, many of them a hundred feet square, and tumbling into the water below? Is it any wonder that the crash and thundering echo can be heard for miles? Is it any wonder that the bottom of this grand inland sea is a hundred fathoms or more deep, when such huge sections of ice, falling from dizzy heights, send the spray nearly to the top of the glacier as they go plowing onward towards the sea?

I have seen a single block of ice measuring at least four hundred feet square, with forty feet extending above the water, silently moving down the bay. Fresh water ice is said to float with seven-eighths below the surface, so in this instance the berg must have been three hundred and twenty feet thick.

Among glaciers, nature is seen in its grandest, most awful and sullen mood. The continual caving leaves the glaciers with lacerated fronts that assume the shape of obelisks, pinnacles and turreted roofs of castles, set with a background of blue which, when touched with the rays of the sun, send back the hues of the topaz, diamond and sapphire in sparkling scintillations.

How many years shall elapse before the last of the glaciers disappears from the bay can hardly be calculated, but they are

slowly receding and will, before many years, become a wonder of the past. There are ten other living glaciers as large as the Muir, besides a number of smaller ones in the bay, and at the extreme northern end is one nearly as large again as the Muir. On the coast two hundred and fifty miles west from Sitka, the great Malispina glacier presents a front of over twenty-five miles to the sea. A few miles further west they almost entirely disappear, and are only found in a few localities just back from the coast in the interior.

About three o'clock on the morning of May 14th, 1889, as we were approaching Glacier bay, Captain William George, pilot of the steamer "George W. Elder," roused me from a sound slumber, to come out and see a most startling sight. I dressed hurriedly, and in a few moments was standing on the upper deck; looking straight ahead, I could see snow-clad peaks towering to the skies, seemingly rising from the water's edge. The sound of six bells had just died away when the sun rose above the eastern horizon, sending a shower of rays across the water and up against the sides of the Fairweather range, sixty miles away; the highest of which were Crillon 16,000 feet, Fairweather 15,000 feet, Lituya 11,000 feet, and Perouse 15,000 feet. A faint line was visible extending along the base of the mountains, and as our ship was sailing at the rate of eight knots per hour, the captain told me to make the best of my opportunity, for the awe-inspiring monarchs would soon disappear from view behind the mountains at their feet. Soon I began to realize that they were fast giving way to the dark line ahead which rose higher and higher until we were confronted by a range of mountains three thousand feet or more high, standing directly across our path, and nothing was left of the imposing spectacle which, but a short time before, greeted my eyes.

The following lines were written at the time and dedicated to Captain George, for his kindness in affording me an opportunity to witness the grandest sight I ever beheld:

High up from out the waters,
Far-reaching to the sky,
Grandly from the mainland,
Right glorious greet the eye.
Four sharp-peaked snowy monarchs,
Clothed full in white array,
Fairweather's three companionous stand,
To hail the dawn of day.

From out the sullen stillness,
 Of night's bleak, wizen pall,
 These monarchs stand in glory,
 Right regal monarchs all.
 Their hoary heads uplifted,
 Majestic to the sky,
 And at their feet green mountains stand,
 Like pignies wondering nigh.

Three thousand feet towards the sky,
 They seek to look above,
 And clothed in furry coats of green,
 Are bathed in tears of love.
 From out Fairweather's frigid eyes,
 Kissed by the sun's soft rays,
 Love's pearly drops increasing fall,
 Through days and years, always.

And high above, as they look down,
 These regal forms appear
 To warn and say "no farther come,
 Your pathway leads not here.
 To waters deep, your sail turn back,
 Else in our shrouds of snow,
 Vestments made ready for the skies,
 We'll mourn in clouds of woe."

On through the smooth and mirrored brine,
 Our ship sails swift and far,
 But full as swift, aye, swifter yet,
 Fairweather sinks his star.
 Behind the green hills near and wild,
 These spectres disappear,
 Nor wait to heed a message sent,
 Though words of joy and cheer.

Come back, old hoary headed kings!
 From out the heavens on high;
 Come back, and show your snow-gemmed crowns,
 To our enchanted eye!
 Why seek ye rest beyond the clouds?
 Why must ye hasten on?
 What, gone so soon? then fare ye well,
 Lituya! Prouse! Crillon!!

The day spent in Glacier bay ends only too quickly, but the ship must travel one hundred and fifty miles further before reaching the terminus of the route, at Sitka. Nearly one hundred miles of this course is due south, then the ship turns to feel its way for thirty miles in Peril strait. This stretch of water is,

as the name implies, a difficult and dangerous passage, and is attempted only in pleasant weather. The water surges and rushes at the rate of six or eight knots an hour, and like Seymour Narrows, is run only at high slack, or between that and high water. Its path is strewn with rocks and reefs, and its swiftest water points are designated as Upper and Lower rapids. At least two officers of the ship are always on the bridge, for here, as everywhere throughout the long journey through the inland waters, their keen vigilance is never for a moment relaxed.

Twenty miles more and the booming of the cannon from the deck of the steamer warns the passengers that another port is reached. Its sullen roar echoes among the hills and announces to the inhabitants that another "steamer day" is at hand. Another messenger from civilization has knocked at their doors, bringing anxiously looked-for tidings from home and friends to those who, from choice or circumstance, have found an abiding place upon our most remote frontier.

Sitka became the capital of Russian-America under the administration of Alexander Baranoff, who served as governor of the Russian colonies from July 27th, 1791, until January 11th, 1818, his predecessor, the first governor, having served from August 3rd, 1784, until July the 27th, 1791. The seat of government at that time was at Kadiak, Kadiak island, five hundred miles west of Sitka.

The especial point upon which the interest of the tourist centered, in Sitka, was Baranoff castle, built by the governor in 1813. It was situated on the top of a hill and commanded a view of the broad expanse of the ocean and of the beautiful harbor, which was studded with many small islands covered with the freshest of evergreen trees and a profusion of the loveliest and brightest verdure. The channels between these islands admit of the passage of the largest ocean steamers, and on a sunshiny day the view is most charming.

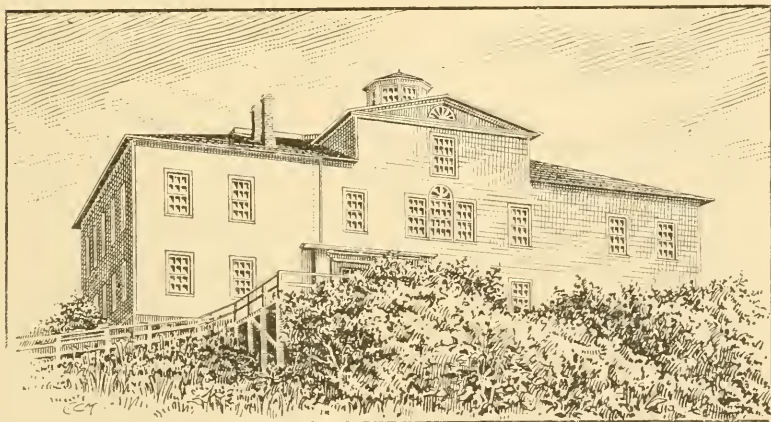
The castle, an imposing structure, built of logs of huge dimensions, was divided into capacious rooms. On one side was a banquet hall running the whole length of the building, and here, during the occupancy of the Russians, many wild scenes of revelry were enacted. In order to preserve this structure from decay, our government expended \$11,000 three years ago, but just after the work was completed it took fire through some mysterious cause and was burned to the ground.



SITKA HARBOR.

LaRoche Photo, Seattle, Wash.

Many stories are told, some of them replete with wild romance and crime of early days when Russian barons and beautiful princesses passed days and nights within the castle in joyous living. It is said that Olga Arbuzoff, a niece of Governor Mooraveff, committed suicide by thrusting a dagger into her heart on the fifth day of March, 1826, the very day of her marriage to Count Nicholas Vassileff. The count was old, ugly and of coarse morals, and the lovely princess very naturally hated him. Her uncle, however, compelled her to marry him, though she insisted that she would take her life if he persisted in his demands. The princess was very much in love with a young midshipman named Demetrius Davidoff, who was young, handsome and an accomplished gentleman, and whom the governor, when he found they were in love with each other, sent away on a six months'



BARANOFF CASTLE.

cruise. In the meantime the nuptials between the princess and the count were hurried to a consummation. The very night of the wedding the young lover returned and went immediately to the castle. As soon as the princess saw him she uttered a cry, and rushing into his arms, snatched his dagger from its sheath and plunging it into her breast, fell to the floor dead. The horror-stricken youth immediately drove it into his own heart and fell dead by the side of his sweetheart. The following day they were both buried in the same grave. From one of the windows in the banquet hall their last resting place was pointed out,

marked by a simple Greek cross standing at the head of the mound.

The white population of Sitka does not exceed five hundred, including the actual residents, territorial officials, and members of the naval force here stationed. The natives number about nine hundred and occupy a portion of the town known as the "ranche."

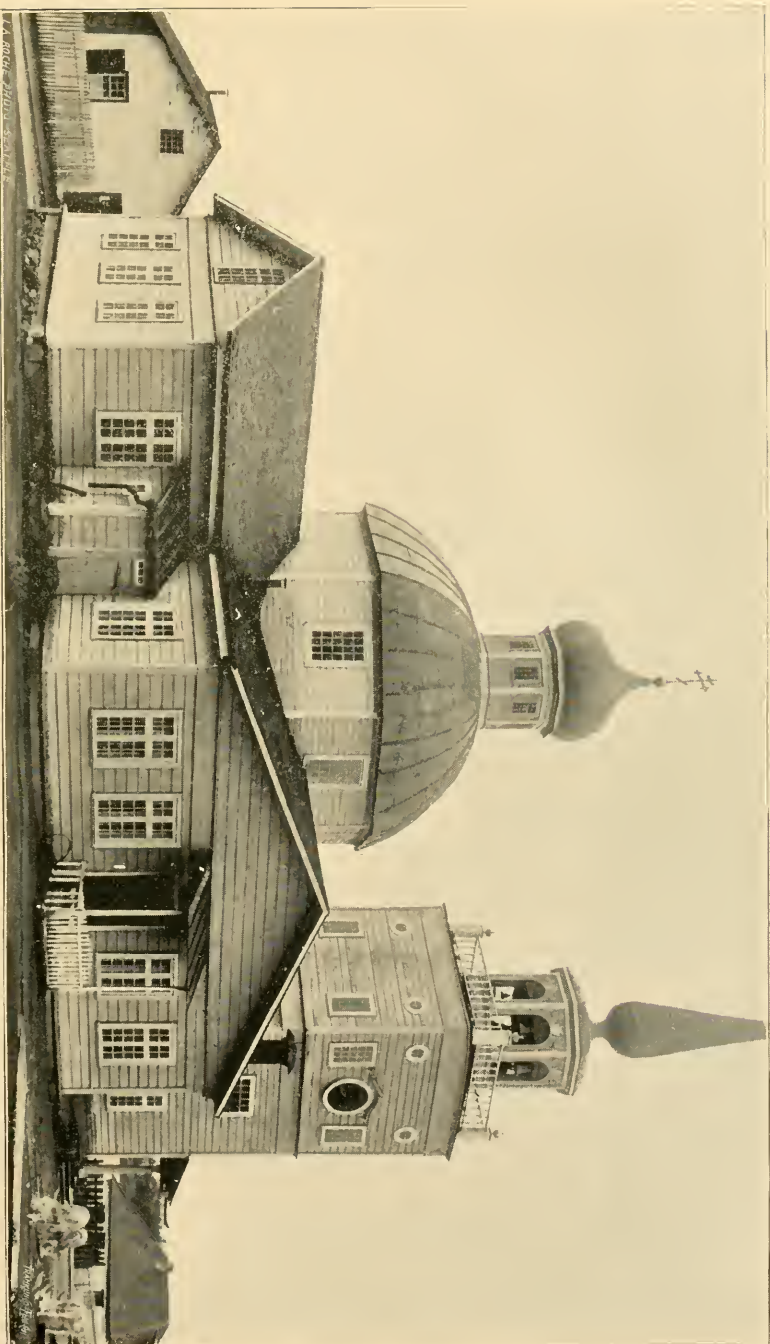
The Greek church with its dome painted blue and chime of bells stands at the head of the street. It is a striking, and rather imposing structure, but its most interesting feature is found inside. The altar decorations and the doors separating the inner sanctuary from the body of the church are truly gorgeous. The painting of the Madonna and other biblical figures are superbly set in silver and gold. Many of the natives are members of this church, and the ceremonies are of an interesting and unusual character, the congregation standing and kneeling, alternately, during the service.

About a half mile south the Sitka industrial school is located. It is an institution where native children are taken in youth and taught various trades. It is supported by the Presbyterian Missionary Society, the general government assisting in the expense of maintaining it.

One of the most interesting places to the tourist at the Alaskan capital is the Jackson Museum, near the industrial school, containing one of the largest collections of Alaska curios in the United States. Many of the articles here deposited, were collected by Dr. Sheldon Jackson in his travels throughout the territory.

"*The Alaskan*" is the oldest paper in the territory, and being published at the capital is much sought after by people abroad, who wish to keep informed in regard to the progress of the territory.

Looking across the bay to the north, Mt. Edgecombe, an extinct volcano, is plainly seen with the mouth of the crater clearly defined at the summit. An excursion to the mountain and into the crater, five hundred feet deep, forms a very interesting trip, but can hardly be made during the one day's wait of the steamer. The ascent of Mt. Verstovoi, which form a beautiful background to this picturesque town, can be accomplished in two or three hours, and the view obtained from the summit well repays one for the effort.



GREEK CHURCH AT SITRA, EXTERIOR VIEW.

From the top of Mt. Verstovoi may be seen the great unknown country stretching on and on to the westward. The tourist never visits it, but as the steamer floats out from the peaceful Sitka harbor "homeward bound," the "far off unknown" is seen to fade away in solemn beauty. By and by this region will be opened up to the pleasure seeker, when it will afford a fitting climax to a tour of the grandest scenic route in the world, that which threads the mystic mazes between Puget sound and Sitka.

In closing this chapter on the tourist route, there seems to be need of a passing reference to the great scenic route of the Northern Pacific Railroad, which, taken before proceeding to Alaska, or after the pleasures of that journey have been experienced, makes the round complete, and one feels that he has seen all there is of the grand, the sublime, and the beautiful in nature, in all its moods.

To our mind, Yellowstone park presents the only wonders on this continent that can appropriately be coupled with those of Alaska, and the Grand canyon, the geysers and hot springs of this great government reservation, offer food for thought and enchantment for the eye that language cannot faithfully portray. The Northern Pacific Railroad Company has just issued a complete and artistic publication entitled, "Sketches of Wonderland." It is beautifully and elaborately illustrated, and replete with information concerning the scenic points of the northwest, charmingly and graphically described.

This company have, with their excellent regular service, a tourists' schedule which affords an opportunity of visiting the Minnesota summer resorts, Yellowstone park and the main and branch lines of its road threading through Montana and Washington, thence south through Oregon and California from Seattle, via steamer or rail.

Excursion tickets from Chicago and St. Paul to Tacoma and Seattle, and return, are on sale in all railroad offices; present rates for round trip tickets, good for stop-overs at all points in either direction and limited to nine months are \$110 and \$90 respectively. These tickets if desired will be made good to return via any other direct line.

Alaska steamer excursion tickets are sold from Tacoma or Seattle to Sitka and return, at reduced rates, including meals and berth on the steamer. State-rooms can be secured in advance by application to any railroad or steamship office.

CHAPTER X.

ALASKA INDIANS.



WHENCE came the Alaska native? Is a question that will probably never be satisfactorily determined, as no record or written history furnishes a clew, but the consensus of opinion seems to point to an Asiatic origin.

Professor Dall in his report on the distribution, origin, etc., of the native races of the northwestern territory, believes the na-

tives of Alaska were once inhabitants of the interior of America, and that they were forced to the west and north, by tribes of Indians from the south. He can, in no way, connect them with the Japanese or the Chinese, either by dress, manner, or language.

Mr. L. M. Turner, who spent a number of years among the Aleutian islands and on the east Bering coast as far north as Norton sound, reports to the Smithsonian Institute, that the Innuits or Eskimo, without doubt, populated this country from the coast of Greenland, and that he found no trouble in tracing a relationship, and proof that the migration was from the east to the west.

Professor Otis T. Mason, of the same institution, takes the position that the emigration came from Asia to this continent, and that the Alaska Innuits are, undoubtedly, of Mongolian origin.

We also are constrained to take the latter view, and believe they once came across Bering strait. It is an easy matter for the most casual observer, to note the marked points of resemblance between the Japanese, and the Innuited Indian of Alaska. The same straight, black hair, olive complexion, small stature, almond

shaped eye and unusually small hands and feet, are, to our mind, unmistakable evidences of kinship.

They are not an inventive people, but are decidedly and emphatically imitative, a trait in the Japanese character always so conspicuous, and their genius seems best illustrated in the nicety of their carving, and their skill in weaving the most delicate fabrics.

The aborigines of any country are quick to adopt the vices of the white man, but much slower in assuming his virtues. This is not to be wondered at, as usually the whites with whom they first come in contact are not of a class whose virtues are conspicuous, and the unsuspecting native has the smooth paths of vice pointed out more often than the steep and rugged road of virtue. The aborigines' love of intoxicants is great, and he will do almost anything to procure them.

When the Russians first occupied the country, they taught the native to make quass, a cooling and comparatively harmless drink, concocted of rye meal mixed with water which they placed in a cask until fermented. Latterly the native learned to add sugar, flour, dried apples and a few hops, putting the whole into a cask until cleared by fermentation. A strong intoxicant is the result. Another home brewed intoxicant, called hoochinoo, is made of fermented molasses and flour, and is a vile kind of liquor. When imbibed, it fairly crazes the natives, fitting them for any deeds of violence or viciousness. They are fond of Jamaica ginger, lemon extract, Florida water, cologne, or in fact, anything having fragrance or a "tang."

Totem poles are found in every village along the southeastern coast. There is some difference of opinion as to their real significance. They are intended, in part, to commemorate deeds of bravery, or some virtue, in the lives of the departed, near whose graves they are reared; also to indicate the family arms of the persons for whom they are erected, and whose habitations they adorn. Some tribes are represented by the crow or the hawk; others have the bear, the whale, or the beaver, as their distinctive tribal emblem. These poles are elaborately carved from top to bottom, some reaching the height of fifty feet, and being three or four feet in diameter. The height signifies the importance of the individual. These people have an oral mythology of the most fabulous character, handed down from father to son. Many

of the curious carvings on the totem poles are designed to tell, in story, some event in the history or tribe of the individual.

Despite the efforts of missionaries and teachers, and the influence of civilization, witchcraft is still believed in to a greater or less extent. Evil spirits still take possession of the old, the decrepid, and the deformed, sometimes of the young, and these must be exorcised; it being considered a matter of duty to dispossess the unfortunate of his tormentors. Death sometimes results from the tortures undergone by those "bewitched."

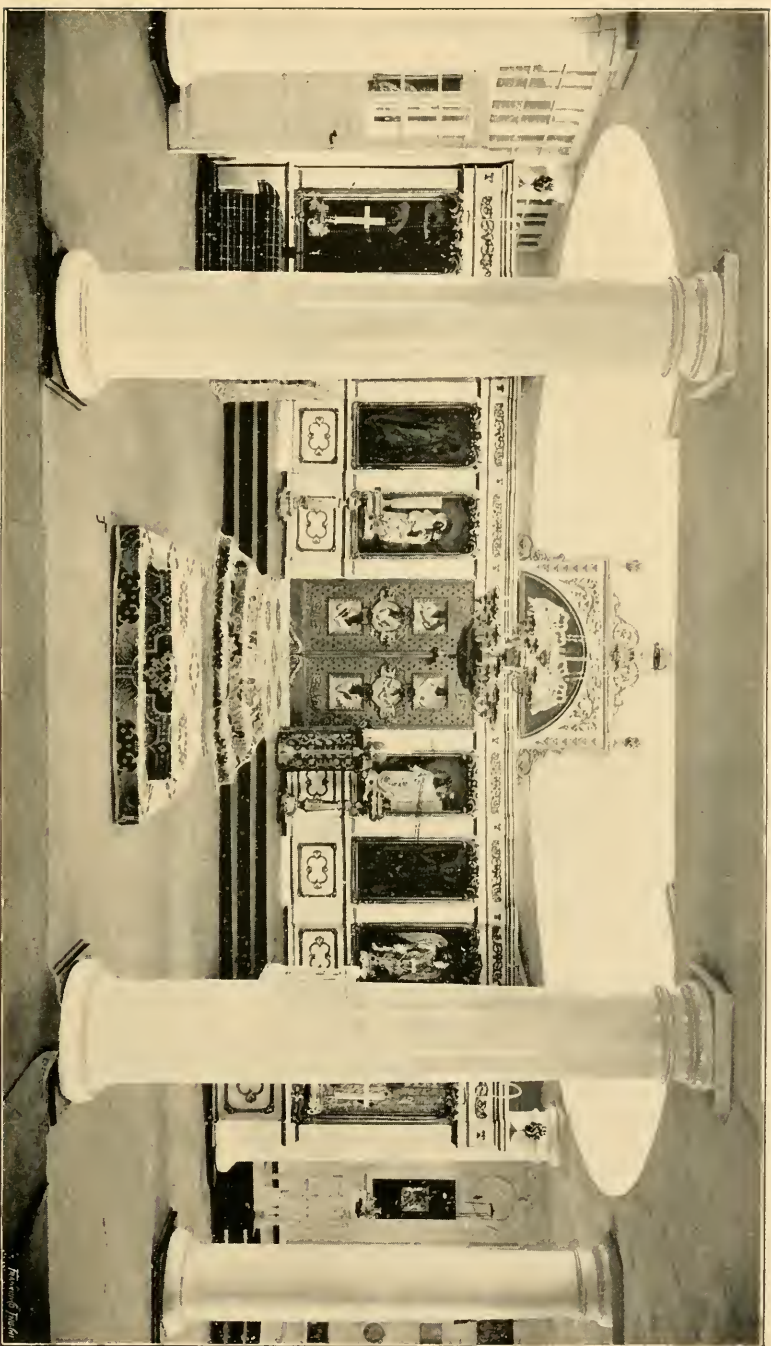
Cremation was formerly practiced throughout the whole coast country of Alaska, but it is fast disappearing now, except where it is followed by tribes removed from missionary influences. It may be here suggested, however, that the energies expended by missionaries and teachers in eradicating this custom, time honored in its antiquity, might have borne better fruits if spent in other directions.

The dead are usually placed in boxes, not long enough to permit the whole body to recline at full length, so it is disjointed and placed in a sitting posture, and the box kept above ground. Sometimes the location of a grave is on a high point, where the departed spirit can look out upon his former haunts. Some of the personal effects of the deceased are often placed beside him.

The shamans, or doctors are never cremated, but lie in state four days—one day in each corner of the dwelling—then the corpse is conveyed to the dead house, where it is seated in an upright position, with blankets and paraphernalia to add to its comfort in the spirit land.

Among the Thlinkits, the name by which most of the natives in Southeast Alaska are known, cremation was formerly the favorite method of disposing of the dead. The bodies of "witches" and slaves were disposed of with great secrecy, but those of chiefs lay in state. The people observed certain rites, then the body was cremated, the totem pole erected to his memory, and his ashes were incased in the base.

There is positive evidence that cannibalism was practiced among these people upon the death of chiefs; the sacrifice of slaves was common, that their spirits might accompany them into the spirit land. It is highly probable that the bodies of these slaves were cooked and eaten. Medicine men have sometimes been known to devour portions of corpses, believing that they would acquire control of the spirit and gain influence over



GREEK CHURCH AT SITKA, INTERIOR VIEW.

LaRoche Photo, Seattle, Wash.

demon spirits. As the giant tree yields to the axe of the woodman, so are most of these practices and customs giving way before the advance of civilization.



INDIAN DOCTOR.

The Alaska Indians are inveterate gamblers. The favorite game is played with a handful of small sticks of different colors, called by various names, such as crab, whale, duck, otter, etc. The player shuffles all the sticks together, then places them under bunches of moss. The object is to guess under which pile is the whale or the duck, etc. Simple as it looks, the natives often lose all their possessions at the game. This kind of gambling is much the same as that called "sing-gamble" among

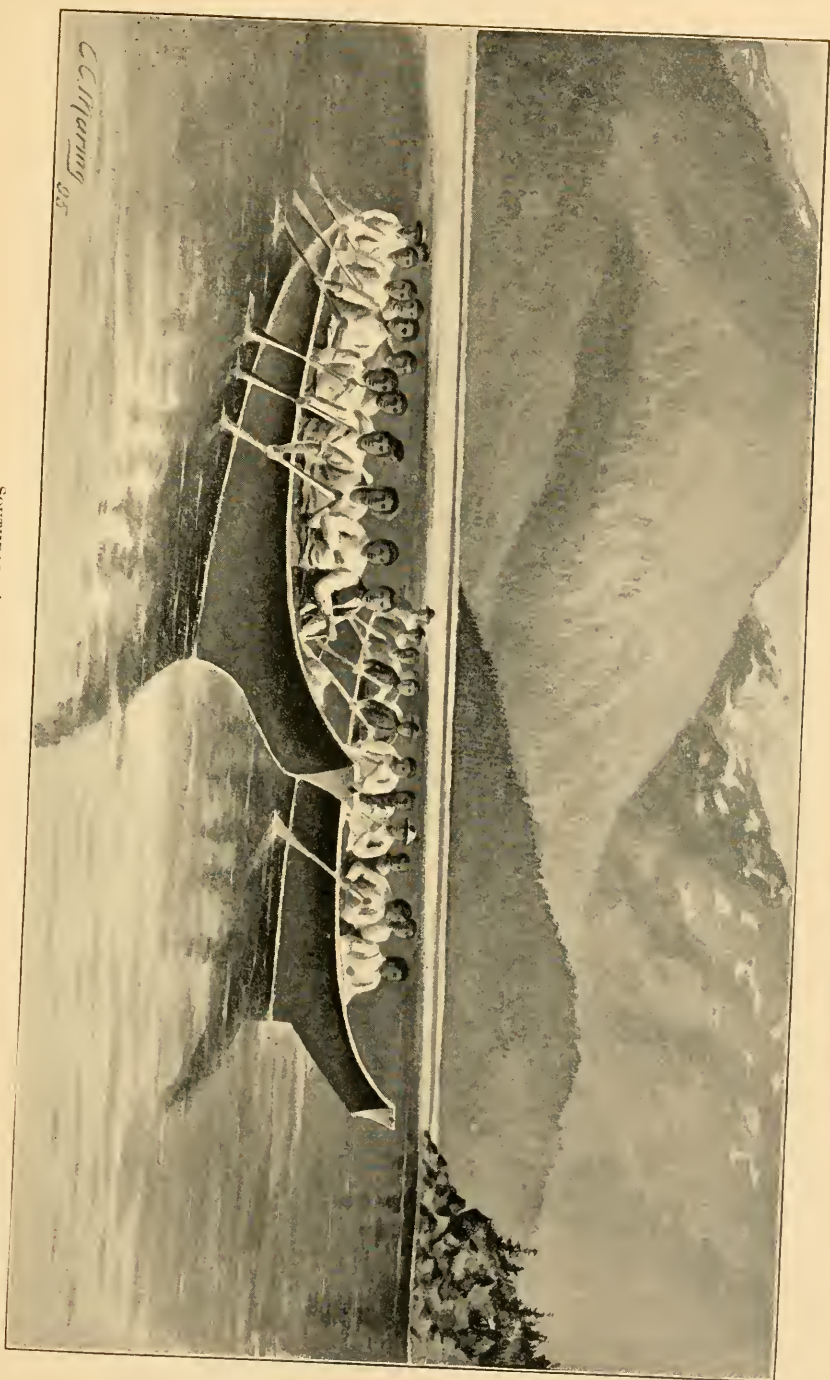
Puget Sound Indians, the latter of whom accompany the shuffling and hiding of sticks with a weird chant.

They are remarkably expert in carving and engraving, as the numerous totem poles, arrowheads, spearheads, and silver and copper ornaments prove. Bullets, spearheads and arrowheads, as well as ornaments of various kinds, are made by the natives of copper, found on White river in the interior country, and not on Copper river, as is generally supposed. Baskets of ingenious design and coloring are made from grasses and roots; and the celebrated Chilkat blanket is made from the wool of the mountain sheep. Some of these blankets are really beautiful in design and workmanship, many of them being sold for one hundred dollars. They are woven on rude hand looms, and it usually takes a native woman six months to complete one. The real article is, however, becoming scarce, as most of those now seen contain an admixture of the coarse yarn of commerce.

Before the strong arm of the law stepped in, an injury of one native by another could be satisfied by the payment of some article of value, usually a blanket. Even murder could be atoned for and forgiven, if a sufficient number of blankets were handed over to the murdered man's relatives. The law of "An eye for an eye, and a tooth for a tooth," was modified by these people. An innocent person might be sacrificed, and this was considered an equivalent and taken as full satisfaction and the murderer was allowed to go free.

The canoe of the native is to him a necessity. It is made of wood in Southeast Alaska; in the far north of skins. In the southern portions the wood selected is usually the red and yellow cedar. Many of these canoes have graceful lines, elaborately carved prows and sterns, and are frequently large enough to carry forty or fifty men. They are cut out of the whole tree, the magnificent yellow cedar, which frequently grows to a great height, and is from seven to ten feet in diameter, furnishing the best. The sides are carefully modeled, worked and bent, so as to have the required graceful curve, by using hot water, and the canoe, when finished and dried, always retains the shape given to it by the builder.

The Chinook jargon, a combination of French and English, invented and used by the Hudson's Bay Company for use in trading with the natives of Oregon, Washington, and the British American possessions, still prevails among the whites and



C. H. Mearns
35

SOUTHEAST ALASKA INDIANS AND CANOES.

natives in the coast country, and to a limited extent in the interior, but it almost entirely disappears after leaving Sitka going west, where the Russian language is spoken mainly among the Aleutian islands.

The paint used by the natives to decorate their canoes, totems, and faces, is of two colors only, red and black. It is made of a kind of rock found in the country, which is rubbed over the surface of a coarse stone, and as it is ground off, water or oil is mixed with it, and it makes a very excellent substitute for paint. Brushes are made of feathers, or the sinews of animals. The Eskimo of the Arctic find the same kind of stone in that region, and use it for painting or decorating their sleds. The Aleuts, especially west of Unalaska, are artistic in their work with grasses and roots, and the delicacy with which they weave and braid them evinces wonderful skill.

It is the practice of the natives of Southeast Alaska to blacken their faces in summer, by rubbing in soot mixed with seal oil. This is done to prevent the sun blistering them when traveling on the water. It also acts as a shade to their eyes, which would otherwise suffer from the glaring reflection of the sun's rays.

The houses of natives in Southeast Alaska are constructed of hewn boards or planks, and in some of the larger villages they are built of massive logs, very similar to the log houses built by whites in heavily timbered countries. In the center there is a square opening, eight or ten feet across, which is neatly filled with gravel upon which the fire is built. The smoke ascends to the roof through an opening made lengthwise, with the comb several feet long, of boards or thin slabs, that can be raised on either side so as to make a perfect draft, according to the direction the wind is blowing. Around the fireplace, the floor is built a few inches high, and bunks are placed against the sides of the house in such number as the occupants require. There is rarely more than one room in the house.

The house of the Aleut or natives of the Aleutian archipelago is called a barabara, and is a sort of a sod house and dug-out combined. The entrance is usually by a dark and narrow opening, through which the natives crawl, and which leads into the main room.



HON. WARREN TRUITT.

Hon. Warren Truitt, Judge of the United States District Court for Alaska, whose term of office has nearly expired, will probably enjoy the distinction of being the only Judge who held his position during the full four years for which he was appointed, his predecessors either resigning or were removed before the expiration of their term. He was appointed by President Harrison, and is the only Republican officeholder in the territory.

As a jurist and a citizen, Judge Truitt commands the respect of the whole people, and his careful watchfulness over the rights of the natives, meting out to them just deserts when offenders, and standing as their protector when improperly treated, has made them his warmest friends. By his strict integrity, his fairmindedness and the impartial administration of the duties of his office, he has won for himself an enviable reputation as a man of broad mind, fine judicial ability and an honorable and upright judge. He enjoys the honor of presiding over the largest district, from a geographical standpoint in the world.

CHAPTER XI.

ESKIMO HABITS AND CUSTOMS.



ZAKSRINER.

THE Eskimo, or Innuït, as they call themselves, of Arctic Alaska, do not live, as many suppose, in snow houses. They live in huts built underground. Usually more than one family occupy a single hut, and often ten or fifteen persons live for eight months in the year in a single apartment that is barely large enough for two persons.

Their huts are built by digging a hole in the ground about six feet deep, and logs are stood up side by side all around the hole. On the tops of these are laid logs that rest even with the top of the ground. Stringers are then laid across them and other logs are laid on these, when moss and dirt is covered over, leaving an opening about two feet

square, over which is stretched a piece of walrus entrail that is so transparent that light comes through, which answers the purpose of a window.

An entrance into the hut is made through an apartment constructed similar to the hut, in the top of which a hole is left large enough to admit a person, and by means of a sort of stepladder he reaches the bottom. From this is a passageway, usually about two feet square, through which he must crawl on his hands and knees to reach the living room of the hut, perhaps fifteen or twenty feet away. At the end of the passage leading

into the hut is a skin which is pushed aside when one enters or goes out. When this is closed over the hole, the apartment is practically airtight, and when occupied by a dozen or more persons the air soon becomes so foul that one side of the little skin window has to be pulled up to let it escape. Occasionally a hut is found where the occupants appreciate the value of fresh air and have inserted a wooden spout in the roof through which the impure air is allowed to escape.

No tables or chairs are ever used by the Eskimo, and the only article found in the way of furniture is their stove, or, more properly speaking, lamp. They are all of one pattern, usually of wood, but sometimes of stone, and are shaped the same as a circular board would be if cut in halves. The center of the lamp is hollowed out to a depth of perhaps a half inch, thus leaving a ridge all around. Along the circle of this ridge is spread a sort of cotton, gathered from a wild shrub in summer. This answers for a lamp wick, and when saturated with seal oil will burn a long time before being consumed. The lamp is placed on two wooden pins driven into the logs on one side of the hut, and above the lamp is driven another wooden pin, on which is placed a piece of seal blubber, just far enough from the flame to cause the oil to drip sufficiently to furnish fuel for the lamp.

The Eskimo may be truly said to burn the midnight oil, for their lamps are never suffered to go out from the time they are lighted in the fall until they abandon their huts for the tent in summer. They are their only stove, and for heating purposes are excellent.

The Eskimo are, as a rule, industrious. It is seldom that a lazy person is seen among either sex. They early learn that an existence is only to be had by applying themselves to some task, and the older they grow the more they are impressed with the knowledge that they can satisfy the cravings of an empty stomach only by industrious labor.

The preparation of skins requires ceaseless exertion, and when they are ready to be made up, sinew thread must be braided and twisted, which of itself is an art. This is one of the first things a young girl is taught, and while she is yet almost an infant is capable of preparing thread from deer or whale sinew with all the dexterity of a woman. Most women are expert sewers, and their stitches are often as even and regular as could be made by a machine.



ESKIMO BOY, ESKIMO HUT, ESKIMO GIRLS, ESKIMO FAMILY,
ESKIMO SPEARING WALRUS.

It is probably from the fact that the Eskimos are obliged to put an endless amount of labor into nearly everything they make, that is to be found the secret of their everlasting patience. They will scrape at a skin a long time before hardly an impression is made upon it, and rub and pull at one when it is hard and stiff. Their delicately formed hands seem poorly adapted to such kind of work, but in the end the skin becomes soft and pliable.

Their hands are, without exception, small and prettily shaped. Even among those women who are tall and slimly built their hands are unusually small and shapely. The same is true of their feet; and this feature, so prominent among the female sex, is also universal among the men. The complexion of the Eskimo is also of a character that one would scarcely expect to find among people who are brought so much in contact with the elements. Although the color of their skin borders strongly on the olive order, it seems soft and clear.

In eating, the Eskimo all sit around in a circle, and the food is placed on the floor in the center of the group. No meal, whether it be of dried or frozen fish, seal or whale meat, is ready to be eaten until a vessel containing seal oil is at hand. This is placed in a position easily reached by those eating, and, before taking a bite of anything, it is first dipped into the oil, or two or three fingers are thrust into it, and then placed into the mouth and sucked. Such a thing as a spoon is rarely ever used by them, and it is doubtful if many of them would understand its use if they had one.

It is when a household of Eskimo are gathered about the floor partaking of their food that their natural disposition to mirth is given full sway, and every meal, whether in their huts or in the tent on the beach, partakes more of the nature of a family reunion than an everyday occurrence. They are naturally given to jest and laughter, and a continual hubbub reigns until the last morsel is eaten. This predisposition toward good nature is always present. A surly Eskimo is rarely seen, and whether it rains or shines, or the wind blows a blizzard from the north pole, they are the same happy and apparently contented people.

The Eskimo have but one standard measure, and that is the fathom. It means as much as a man can span by holding his arms out at right angles to his body, and this measures about six feet. When buying calico or drilling of the whites, or measuring

the dimensions of a boat or log, or for any other purpose, it is always so many fathoms, or "e sung nuk," as it is called by them.

If a woman wants to make a present, the only thing that suggests itself to her, and in fact the only thing she ever gives to a lover, is a tobacco pouch, or "tee rum i ute," as it is called. These they make of reindeer or squirrel skin in various styles, and decorate them with beads or some fancy-colored fur, such as the ermine, either in its delicate yellow tinge of summer or the pure white it assumes in winter.

The Eskimo still cling to the primitive manner of making fire with flint stone and their little pieces of steel, usually a piece of an old file, and flint are as much a part of one's personal belongings as the coat he wears upon his back.

They carry these articles in a little bag, in the bottom of which are little wads of the same fibrous material used for wicks for their oil lamps, and which is gathered from a wild bush in the fall of the year. In making a light, they take a small piece of this cotton, which has previously been rolled in wood ashes, and, holding it between the thumb and flint, strike the steel against the stone, and the sparks emitted ignite the cotton, which is blown into a flame. It is a crude way of getting a fire started, but is one of the most simple and interesting of their customs, for it comes from a period of time when the Eskimo had to depend upon their own resources for obtaining a fire, and before they knew anything about the usefulness of the match of civilization.

The Eskimo are complete slaves to tobacco, and it is seldom that one is seen who does not use it in one form or another. All the men and most of the women smoke, while a child, after it reaches the age of five or six years, appears not to be a true representative of his race if he cannot smoke a pipe or chew tobacco.

While nearly all the women smoke, they take to chewing more naturally, and they do it so quietly that one would not suspect it from their actions. They never spit, and only crunch it occasionally, preferring to suck it or allow it to lie quietly in the mouth, and, as spittle accumulates, swallow it. They can not understand why a white man spits when chewing or smoking, for they seem to find pleasure in the habit only from swallowing the juice. If a native is chewing and wants to eat he carefully

takes the quid of tobacco from his mouth and puts it on top of his ear. From this place it is afterwards taken to be again put in his mouth, and this process is repeated until he has gotten all the substance he can from the tobacco. It is then carefully put away in his tobacco pouch, to eventually find its way to his pipe, and the end of that tobacco is not reached until it is wafted away in clouds of smoke. An Eskimo who is without tobacco is as wretched as a confirmed drunkard without his whisky, and he will go to as great extremes to secure it as he would to procure food for himself and family. It is the first thing he asks for when a white man approaches him, and the first article he wants to trade for when he has furs to sell.

The oomiak, or skin boat, is a curiously constructed affair, and when standing on the beach looks lumbering and awkward and as if it would not carry a heavy load or ride much of a sea; yet as many as thirty or forty persons often get in one, and when thus loaded it will ride in rough water with remarkable buoyancy. The usual size of the oomiak is about thirty-five feet long, six feet beam, about four feet deep in the middle, and comes almost to a point at both ends. It is built something after the shape of a dory. The frame work is made of pieces of timber, the heaviest of which is about three inches square. These are placed crosswise in the bottom of the boat, and across them are lashed small strips by means of seal thongs, each joint being made to fit closely.

When the timbers are firmly lashed together, they are very strong, and a heavy sea striking the side of the boat will not cause it to yield at a single joint. When the framework is finally ready, walrus or sealskin is stretched over it, the pieces sewed together and pulled as tightly as possible, and then lashed to the top-rail. When the skin is in place scarcely a drop of water can penetrate through the seams. Over the top-rail about two feet of the skin is allowed to hang loosely on the inside, the whole length of the boat, and when sailing in rough weather, slats are raised between the skin and frame, the loose skin pulled up, thus giving about two feet more of surface above the sea, and if carefully managed, scarcely a drop of water can reach the inside in the roughest weather. The oomiak has no keel and therefore cannot beat or tack against the wind, and the only thing to do if it blows too hard, is to seek the first landing that can be made.

There is generally but one mast to the oomiak, and this stands about one-third of the length back from the bow, and when there is no wind it is taken down and laid in the boat. Sometimes, when the wind is fair, a second but smaller mast is placed about the same distance from the stern of the boat, but they are only used in the largest oomiaks. The lower end of the mast is inserted in a slot between timbers in the bottom of the boat, and guys extend from near the top to both sides and also to both bow and stern.

One not used to the oomiak is in constant dread of moving about, for fear that if he should step between the framework he will make a hole in the skin, for the water is plainly seen through it. The natives pay little attention to where they step in going from one part of the boat to another, and although their feet will depress the skin two or three inches, there is no danger of its giving way, and the very spot they are standing on would doubtless hold up a ton.

The kyak used by the Eskimo is similar in construction and style to the skin canoe or bidarka found among the natives along the southern coast of Alaska. It is not much used by the coast Eskimo, as they do most of their traveling by water in the oomiak, but those in the interior use them to greater extent in navigating on the rivers and lakes, they being so light that they can carry them about with very little trouble. They are generally the single-hatch kyak, but occasionally one is found with two or three holes and capable of carrying as many persons.

An article of clothing that is indispensable among the Eskimo is the "kar pee tuk" or rain coat. It is made from the entrails of the seal or walrus, strips about three inches wide being sewed together and made so as to slip over the head like an artiger. It is identical in shape and made the same as the "kamalika" worn by the natives along the southern coast of the territory. If carefully sewed it is water-tight, and will weigh but a few ounces. It is rather a neat and tasteful looking garment when dry, and rustles like silk, but when wet has a slick or slimy appearance strongly suggestive of the part of the animal from which it is made.

A mark which serves as a good means of determining the sexes is that worn by the females, which consists of three or five lines about an eighth of an inch wide on the chin, which resembles tattooing made with India ink. Instead of pricking it in, a



HERD OF REINDEER, LYING DOWN.

sharp instrument is drawn over the skin until blood comes, and wood ashes are then rubbed in. This practice is almost universal, and is usually put on when a girl reaches about the age of eight years.

Among the men the practice of wearing labrets is common, though not so universally adopted as tattooing among the women. These labrets are worn on either side of the lower lip, an aperture having been punctured with some pain and much care for the purpose. The most popular style is about a half-inch in diameter, but sometimes they reach the enormous size of an inch. They are usually made of highly polished ivory with a colored bead in the center, and are occasionally worn on both sides of the chin. Glass stoppers are much sought after for this purpose, but not much worn on account of being difficult to obtain.

The tattooing by the women and wearing of labrets by the men have no significance other than being considered an adornment for the face. Some of the women have the middle larch of the nose pierced, from which beads are suspended, but they are considered troublesome and are being abandoned.

The favorite manner of having the ears pierced by the women is just above the end, from which two or three strings of beads are suspended, passing from one ear to the other under the chin. The younger women wear beads wound around their hair, which is first braided on both sides, and occasionally bracelets and necklaces of beads are worn.

The men seldom tattoo their arms or hands, and their only peculiarity of dress is wearing the labret and shaving the crowns of their heads.

Plurality of wives is a practice that is by no means common, and when it does occur it is among men who, by virtue of their possessing more property than their neighbors, are able to support more than one wife. When the custom prevails, there appears to be no disturbing or quarrelsome disposition, and if there is any, the aggrieved woman bottles her wrath, doubtless from fear that she will be turned out to shift for herself, which is more to be dreaded than any pang of envy or jealousy she might experience.

The Arctic Alaska Eskimo is, physically, a fine specimen of the human race. While as a rule they will not average over five feet six or eight inches in height, occasionally a six-footer is found, but he is a very rare exception. They are not by any

means dwarfish in stature or slow and sluggish in their movements; neither are they dull and stupid intellectually. The casual observer might think them so, for they appear subdued and reserved when among the whites; but when away from them and left to act freely, they are bright, cheerful and intelligent.

A stout or corpulent Eskimo is never seen. Their whole life is one which calls into play every muscle of the body, and they are distinctly an athletic race. Not a pound of superfluous flesh is on their closely knitted frames, and, while their hands, lower limbs, and feet are very small, their chests and shoulders are grandly developed, and their arms are muscular and sinewy.

They are very fond of athletic sports, and football and jumping are practiced by them to a considerable extent. They indulge in many exercises that test their strength, such as pulling each other's arms when locked together, wrestling, lifting each other or heavy weights, and many such exercises that will bring into play every muscle. Many of them excel in jumping and kicking, and occasionally one is found who can kick with both feet higher than his own head, a performance that few white athletes can accomplish. Little Zaksriner, whose picture appears at the opening of this chapter, performs a most wonderful feat. She clasps her hands behind her back, bending forward until her head touches the floor, and straightens up without bending her knees or unclasping her hands.

The principal amusement of the Eskimo, however, is dancing, and they indulge in it upon the slightest provocation. While the women take part in this pastime, it is with moderation, and as a sort of embellishment to the fatiguing and wearisome jumping about so ceaselessly practiced by the men. They seem to find the most enjoyment in blending their voices with those of the men in song. Although they do not possess the accomplishment to a very great extent, nor is the number of tunes very large, yet there is a harmony in them all that becomes the more pleasing to the ear the oftener they are heard.

When dancing, one or more of the men beat upon a drum made by stretching a piece of walrus entrail over a hoop, and this serves as a time-marker for the participants in the dance, to which the grotesque throwing about of the arms and twisting of their bodies are made to add a pantomimic accompaniment. During all this time they jump and whirl about in the most violent manner, and only stop from sheer exhaustion.

CHAPTER XII.

REINDEER.

FIVE years ago a United States revenue cutter, which was detailed by the government to patrol the Arctic, so as to render assistance to the whaling vessels if they should be nipped in the ice, had occasion to pass within sight of a little island in North Bering sea, and about forty miles from the coast, known as King's island. The man on the lookout at once noticed a boat put off from the island, loaded with people, and it immediately paddled toward the vessel. As soon as it came alongside the occupants made known to the captain that they were in a starv-ing condition. An officer was at once sent ashore, and he soon returned and reported that the people were so reduced for food that they had been living for some weeks on their Eskimo dogs. There are about 300 Eskimos on this island, and they live in huts dug into the side of a mountain, gaining an entrance and passing from one to another by means of pole ladders strung along an abrupt portion of it, and, though difficult of access, the location of the huts affords protection from the severe winds and cold of the long winter. For eight months in the year, the ice absolutely prevents the natives from having any communication with those on shore, and they only come in contact with them when they venture across the water in their skin boats during the brief summer.

A few years ago the walrus existed in large numbers throughout all this region. The whalers on their way north have hunted them so closely that they have practically exterminated them. The walrus travel in herds, pulling out on the ice, sleeping and basking in the sun, and in this condition become an easy prey to the white man with his breech-loading rifle. They are hunted by the whalers simply for their ivory tusks, a pair of them weighing from eight to twenty pounds, and having a value of only about eighty cents per pound. The ivory is used by the

natives in the manufacture of many of their implements of the hunt and chase, their skin is used by them for tents and coverings for their boats and canoes, and the flesh and oil are considered by them a delicacy.

Five or six years ago it was not an uncommon thing for a party of Eskimo to put out in a skin boat, and with their crude harpoon and spears, capture a whale, but the American whalers have so closely pursued them, that now they are only found a long distance north of the last settlement. During the summer of 1894, but one whale was caught by the Eskimo. A single whale will average from twelve hundred to two thousand pounds of whalebone. Its market value is from four to six dollars per pound, and it is easily seen that a whaler that captures three or four whales in a season, comes pretty near paying for his ship, outfit and the risk he runs in entering those icy fields in search of this valuable animal.

Since the advent of the whalers many natives have bought muzzle-loading rifles and ammunition from them, and have hunted the wild reindeer, killing them off without regard to age or sex, until they, too, are practically exterminated. A few years ago they roamed all through Arctic Alaska in large herds, but the past year but two of them were killed by these people. Thus it will be seen that the greed of the white man has robbed these people of two of their principal food supplies, until to-day they are left in almost a starving condition, being obliged to depend almost entirely upon the hair seal and small fish for their food supply.

Dr. Sheldon Jackson was on board the revenue cutter when it visited King's island, and on his return to Washington City, he interested the government in behalf of the starving Eskimo, and secured an appropriation for the purpose of introducing reindeer from Siberia, where they exist in immense herds. The purpose contemplated being to establish stations in different parts of Arctic Alaska, instruct the Eskimo in the manner of rearing them, and when they learn to care for them, as the natives do in Siberia, distribute them among the natives so that in the future they will have an unfailing food and clothing supply.

The author of this book was selected by the government to establish a reindeer station at Port Clarence, and in the summer of 1892, one hundred and seventy of these animals were brought over from the Siberian coast and the station duly organized.

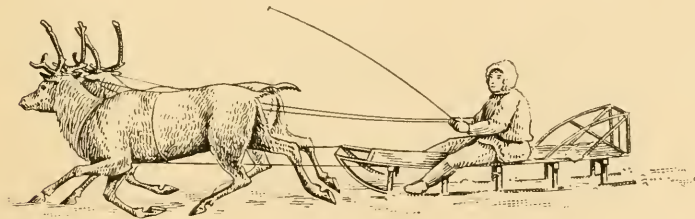


KINGS ISLAND, NORTH BERING SEA.

The increase the first year was nearly fifty per cent. and other reindeer have been brought over each year since, so that there are now nearly seven hundred in the herd.

Arctic Alaska is peculiarly adapted to the raising of reindeer. It consists of vast areas of tundra and moss which furnishes the reindeer with an article of food especially adapted for their sustenance. There is little doubt that the reindeer industry will, in the near future, assume considerable proportions, and private companies will embark in the business of raising this animal in these regions for commercial purposes, the same as stock-raising is followed in the grazing regions in many of the States of the Union. Its flesh is excellent and as palatable as the venison usually found in the market, and the hides, if cured in the proper season, are well adapted to many purposes of commerce.

The color of the fur of the reindeer is varied. Perhaps the most common is the seal-brown, and when free from other shades is decidedly rich in appearance. The fur, for such it may properly be called, after it has taken on its summer coat is soft and glossy and about the length of that of the fur-seal. When taken at this season, if properly dressed, it sheds very little. The skin is soft and pliable, and but little thicker than that of the fur-seal. The reindeer skin was at one time the only one used by the natives for their clothing, tents, and everything else, but now the seal and ground squirrel skins play an important part. Reindeer skins have become a matter of luxury with the natives, and only those who deny themselves other things that they need for their comfort, wear reindeer clothing. In the country about Kotzebue Sound occasionally a skin is secured from a wild reindeer, but is so rare that it assumes somewhat the nature of a curiosity. Thus it will be seen that, practically, all the reindeer skins used by the Alaskan Eskimo come from Siberia.



CHAPTER XIII.

MISSIONARIES AND THEIR WORK.

IT was in 1793, that Catherine, Empress of Russia, sent missionaries to Russian America to instruct the natives in religion, and at the same time, also sent convicts from Siberia to teach them agriculture. The result of this strange admixture was, that, in ten years, the number of natives was largely reduced, the outrages of unscrupulous men being so unspeakable. The lives of natives were valued no more than those of dogs ; and the spirit and life were nearly stamped out of such as survived.

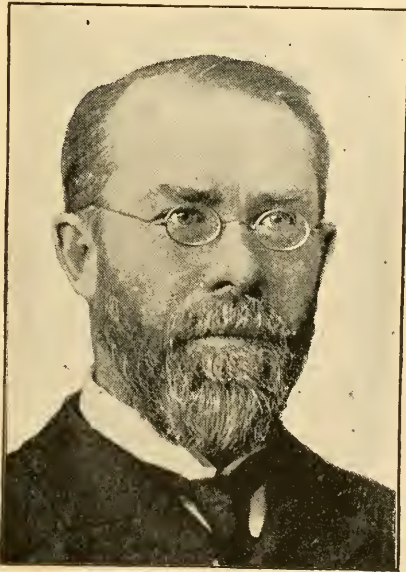
The Russian proverb—"Heaven is high and the czar distant"—was followed literally, and the indignities practiced upon the unfortunate natives were without limit. A few priests of the Greek faith tried to stem the tide, but succeeded in an indifferent manner. Their missions were established at different points on the coast, and even in the interior. The natives, attracted by the pomp and ceremony of the church, were attentive listeners and observers. But they understood very little, and not much information was imparted, aside from teaching the Russians and half-breed children the rites of the church. Indian attendance was not encouraged in the Russian schools.

During the Russian occupancy, Fins, Swedes, and Germans were largely employed by the fur company, and a Lutheran missionary was sent out to Sitka for their benefit, and a mission established in 1845. The Russian schools and churches, for the most part, were closed in 1867, when the American flag displaced that of Russia ; and Russians and other Europeans returned to their respective countries, leaving the people "corrupted and degraded by their influence." The Lutheran preacher with his flock also departed, United States soldiers were placed in frontier posts, and a new set of traders took the places of the former ones.

For seventeen years Congress neglected to provide any form of civil government for her new possessions ; all progress was checked, and healthful development was at a discount. This

was, no doubt, due to the bitter denunciations of the purchase of Alaska, and the ridicule heaped upon what was sneeringly referred to as "Seward's folly." Alaska was considered by the great American people as a whole to be an inhospitable region of perpetual snow and ice; peopled by ignorant, fierce and degraded savages—notwithstanding the statement which has been so often quoted from Mr. Seward's speech on Alaska: "That it must be a fastidious person who complains of a climate in which, while the eagle delights to soar, the humming bird does not disdain to flutter."

Finally, the tales of gold discovery, coupled with the work of American and other missionaries, stimulated our government into attempting an assumption of its duty. It is an undoubted fact, that the present geographical knowledge of this vast country has been largely gained through devoted missionaries, and it is also due to this class of persons that the natives have learned "that the white men are not all bad," a belief strongly implanted in their minds from their intercourse with vicious traders, and unscrupulous persons.



DR. SHELDON JACKSON.

To Dr. Sheldon Jackson, who first visited Alaska in 1884, is due, in a large measure, the present excellent condition of the Alaska school system. He saw for himself the degradation and ignorance which prevailed among the natives, and the virgin field offered for educational and other work. Through his efforts, Mrs. A. R. McFarland, an intrepid woman, took up the work at Fort Wrangel, where a native teacher named Philips had, unaided, sought to elevate the moral status of his

people, and instruct them in civil methods. Mrs. McFarland became nurse, doctor, undertaker, preacher and teacher. No marriage ceremony then existed among the natives, and poly-

gamy, slavery and devil dances were common. Her untiring efforts did much to eradicate these evils, and further substantial progress. She left Fort Wrangel a few years later, and is now engaged in the same work at the lower portion of Prince of Wales Island, where she is loved and respected by the natives.

In 1885, Congress made an appropriation for the Alaska public school system, and Dr. Jackson was appointed General Agent of Education for the territory. In this capacity he has established schools in the most advantageous points throughout the whole territory, and the apportionment of the public moneys, among the already established church denominations, has made the missionary work of Alaska a mighty bulwark of religious strength for the welfare of the natives. Dr. Jackson is truly a pioneer christian worker. After many years of arduous duty in a number of the western territories, he sought a new field in the great Alaskan territory. He was confronted by the totally unorganized state of the country, devoid of laws or government, but his indomitable spirit was not held down by difficulties—he gained the ear of the powers at Washington—and his earnest, fervent faith is daily proved by his works. To Dr. Jackson also belongs the credit of importing reindeer from Siberia to Arctic Alaska. While in search of new fields for missionary and school work, he discovered that the Eskimos were starving. He at once interested government in the cause, and to-day the industry of domesticating reindeer in that section is an assured fact.

In this connection it is proper to add that this humane proposition was at first met with severe criticism and opposition on the grounds that it was impracticable and a useless expenditure of public money. And were it not that Mr. Harris, United States Commissioner of Education, gave it his hearty support and encouragement, the most beneficent act ever extended to a worthy and starving people, would not have become as it has, an assured success. And to this broad-minded and worthy official who has stood faithfully by the cause of education in Alaska, is also largely due the credit of its advancement in this far off territory.

The first school in Alaska was organized at Kadiak by Gregory Shelikoff, in 1784. And the first church building was also there erected; it still exists, but the school has been extinct for a quarter of a century.

The Indian industrial training schools have proved excellent institutions. Among these three deserve especial mention.

They are located at Sitka, Koserefski on the Yukon, and at New Metlakahtla. The founder and director of the latter is Mr. William Duncan, to whose work reference is made elsewhere in this volume. The school at Sitka is partially aided by this government and is under the management of the Presbyterian Board of Home Missions, and that of Koserefski is under Roman Catholic supervision.

In these schools the boys are taught painting, carpentry, shoemaking and other trades. The girls are instructed in cooking, baking, sewing and all branches of plain housekeeping, the purpose in short of these schools being to civilize and christianize the native children.

The number of private schools supported by various religious denominations, is nineteen, while the number supported by the government is sixteen. The Russian church, established so long ago, has many communicants, but many of them retain their belief in witchcraft, polygamy and kindred barbarous practices.

The indefatigable efforts of teachers and missionaries, their absolute devotion to the work of civilization and christianizing the natives of Alaska, has been of incalculable benefit to this hitherto neglected people. There has been mental, moral and physical growth, whose influence is far-reaching, and which should command the hearty sympathy and support of all humanitarians, irrespective of class or creed.

The Greek church, so early in the field, had a few—a very few—noble exceptions among their priests who did good work for the natives.

Father Tosi, of the Roman Catholic faith, has labored long years with devotion on the Yukon. Father Althoff after sixteen years of Alaskan labor has been appointed to work in Vancouver, British Columbia. He opened the mission work in Juneau, founded there the school and hospital of St. Anns and the Roman Catholic church. Through many discouragements and uncertainties, Father Althoff and the good sisters labored at Juneau, receiving nothing for their services save their frugal board and modest apparel. Upon his departure to his new field, the *Searchlight*, of Juneau, on February 25th, 1895, gave a most fitting tribute to his services, which concluded thus: "As a priest, the prayers of his people will go with him, as a citizen he will be greatly missed; as one of the worthy pioneers of the

territory he will ever be held in grateful remembrance by all who feel an interest in the welfare of Alaska."

Rev. Hall Young and wife, formerly at Fort Wrangel, Professor and Mrs. John A. Tuck, of the Methodist Episcopal church, stationed at Unalaska, Mr. and Mrs. W. T. Lopp, Congregational, at Cape Prince of Wales, Mr. and Mrs. I. Loomis Gould, Presbyterian, at Jackson, Rev. and Mrs. E. A. Austin, Presbyterian, at Sitka, have all worked for a number of years with a devotion rarely equalled.



HARRISON R. THORNTON.

The noble family of martyrs have also been recruited within Alaskan borders. Father Juvenal, a Russian priest, was killed at Cook inlet for his interference with polygamy. Archbishop Seghers, of the Roman Catholic church, was murdered on the Yukon by a traveling companion. A teacher named Edwards was killed at Kake village in 1891, while attempting to enforce the law in regard to the landing of whisky, and in the summer of 1893, Harrison R. Thornton, a young missionary and teacher who, with his wife, was stationed at Cape Prince of Wales, was cruelly murdered by Eskimos, for which act there was no cause and which could have been prevented.

CHAPTER XIV.

THE BOUNDARY DISPUTE.

THE early founders of the American nation, who sought an asylum in New England, free from the religious intolerance and oppression of the mother country, declared that they offered a shelter to the "oppressed of every nation." The invitation thus extended by the early pioneers was generous, and how it has been taken advantage of is evidenced to-day by the fact that the United States has a cosmopolitan population.

Those who sought these shores to make homes and become good citizens have been welcomed. They have had the protection of government and have become factors in the upbuilding of the republic. And the open arms and generous freedom which the United States has ever extended to kinsmen over the water are traits that but typify our national characteristics. No sentries have been stationed on crag or promontory to warn off intruders; no large standing army has been maintained in order that the people might exercise all their rights of citizenship. Differences with other nations which have arisen from time to time have been, for the most part, settled by arbitration. Sometimes we have had our rights acknowledged, and at others we have acquiesced in unfavorable decisions, that the credit and honor of the nation might be maintained and that peaceful relations might be sustained. No spirit of national aggrandizement has been manifest in the history of the United States. The notable wars of this nation have been waged in the name of life and liberty, and for the united country.

International complications have not been unknown, it is true, but it is submitted that this country has been fair, reasonable and placable, always, in dealing with questions of comity, commerce or privileges with other nations. In the matter of the fur seal dispute with England, the defeat suffered by our government, is yet fresh in the minds of all our citizens. The award

made by the Paris tribunal seems to us to be most unjust, and yet, as an advanced civilized nation, our honor would be impugned were it not strictly adhered to. No nation worthy of the name can afford to besmirch its reputation by any attempt to repudiate a solemn compact. Hardly had the decision of the Paris tribunal been handed down, before the attention of the country was called to a matter in which England again became the aggressor, and that too, in connection with the territory of Alaska. This is the so-called boundary dispute between Canada and the United States, embracing a portion of Southeastern Alaska. While the British and Canadian authorities have been active, our government and people have shown an apathetic spirit in dealing with the question; but it is now noted that attention is being directed to it, largely through the instrumentality of citizens of Alaska and the State of Washington who are conversant with the question, and of the importance of this strip of territory, from commercial and geographical aspects, being retained to the northern territory and to the United States. We believe that it is time for a re-enunciation of the patriotic principle contained in the Monroe doctrine, if our self respect as a nation cannot be otherwise maintained—"that the United States will not permit European interference or European control in America, north or south."

In view of the importance of this question to the United States, and especially to Alaska, it is in order here to consider the subject in its various details. The claim made by the British government, acting at the instance of Canada, embraces a valuable strip of land, a portion of which is the key to a vast extent of the interior of Alaska, rich in mineral and other resources. Though the immense value of this land cannot be accurately determined, a knowledge of its geographical position on the coast, shows that great commercial advantages will accrue from its possession, and that the United States cannot afford to be otherwise than firm and aggressive, in asserting and maintaining our rights to ownership of this strip.

By the organic act of Alaska, in the absence of the governor, the clerk of the court shall act in that capacity. Upon the assembling of Congress last December, the governor was called to Washington, and soon after he left Sitka, the disputed boundary question was given new impetus, by the appearance of a party of Canadian surveyors at Juneau, whom it was reported



HON. CHARLES D. ROGERS.

were to immediately commence a survey into the interior via the Taku river, and that this action was to be followed by the establishment of a British garrison in Alaskan territory. Acting Governor Rogers said he would call out the militia and swear into service the whole native population of Alaska, if any attempt was made to occupy any portion of our territory, or interfere in any way with the rights of American citizens. This burst of patriotism on the part of the young official earned for him the title of war governor of Alaska, and had there been any cause for such action, the sturdy miners and settlers throughout the territory, to a man, would have rallied to his support.

An interpretation of the treaty, concluded between Russia and England in 1825, clearly establishes the line of demarkation between what is now Alaska, and what constitutes a portion of Canada.

This treaty was brought about, primarily, by a ukase of the

Russian Czar, issued in 1821, to the effect, that foreign vessels would not be allowed to approach within one hundred miles of Russian America. Negotiations followed this ukase, resulting in the treaty between Russia and England in 1825, wherein Russia accepted 54 degrees and 40 minutes north latitude as the southern limit of her possessions. The treaty was couched in the following language:

"Sec. 3. The line of demarkation between the possessions of the high contracting parties upon the coast of the continent and the islands of America to the northwest, shall be drawn in the following manner: Commencing from the southernmost point of the island called Prince of Wales Island, which point lies in the parallel of 54 degrees 40 minutes north latitude, and between the 131 and 133 degrees of west longitude; the same line shall ascend to the north along the channel called Portland channel as far as the point of the continent where it strikes the 56th degree of north latitude; from this last mentioned point the line of demarkation shall follow the summit of the mountains situated parallel to the coast, as far as the point of intersection of the 141 degree of west longitude (of the same meridian), and finally, from the said point of intersection of the 141 degree, in its prolongation as far as the frozen ocean, shall form the limit between the Russian and British possessions on the continent of America to the northwest.

"Sec. 4. That wherever the summit of the mountains which extend in a direction parallel to the coast, from the 56 degree of north latitude to the point of intersection of the 141 degree of west longitude, shall prove to be at the distance of more than ten marine leagues from the ocean, the limit between the British possessions and the line of coast which is to belong to Russia as above mentioned, shall be formed by a line parallel to the windings of the coast, and which shall never exceed the distance of ten marine leagues therefrom."

It will be noted that at the time of the purchase of Russian America by the United States, in 1867, the limits of the territory were described in the articles of cession by Russia, in the exact language which appears in this treaty above referred to. It will also be observed that the name Portland canal is mentioned as the eastern boundary as far north as the fifty-sixth degree north latitude.

At the time of the treaty between Russia and England little

was known of this region, save through the explorations of Captain George Vancouver. In his narrative published towards the close of the last century, he speaks of Portland canal, and also located a certain rock in Behn canal, and named it "New Eddystone Rock," after the rock near the south coast of England upon which stands the famous Eddystone light-house known to mariners the world over. The Alaska rock, "New Eddystone," is two hundred and fifty feet high and about sixty feet in width at its base.

When the treaty of 1825 was made, England recognized the claim of Russia to the territory as far east as Portland canal, and continued this recognition until the purchase was made by the United States in 1867. For more than twenty years preceding the treaty the Hudson Bay Company paid Russia an annual rental for the privilege of trading in the inland waters to the northwest of Portland canal, and our government maintained a garrison at Fort Tongas at the mouth of this canal until 1870 and a custom house until 1889.

The maps issued by the United States since the Alaska purchase and those published by the British authorities, followed generally the same line of demarkation, until the year 1887. At that time a change was noticed in the British maps, for their line was then made to extend within the limits defined by the maps of our government. Hence, it is only fair to infer, that when this strip of land became better known to England, and its value more or less accurately determined, a first attempt was made to set up a claim to the territory, through the medium of maps published by the British government.

And the claim once set up, it may be further inferred that in any negotiations which should follow, England would rely upon the power of British craft and diplomacy to win both the point and the territory. The policy pursued by the English government in this matter, is entirely in keeping with the method of aggrandizement that has been followed for hundreds of years by Great Britain.

The line of demarkation followed by the United States extended ten marine leagues back from salt water into the interior, claiming a strict interpretation of the articles of cession from Russia, whose language was construed to mean ten marine leagues or thirty-four miles inland *from every point, whether bay or inlet*, where salt water washed the shores of the mainland,

unless a defined range of mountains intervened running parallel with the coast, in which case, the summit of such range became the limit.

The British claim, that where the summit of the mountains are not within the ten marine league limit, the boundary shall be that distance from the *main channels of water*. They also claim that the eastern boundary shall run *due north* from the southernmost point of Prince of Wales Island, until it intersects Behm canal; thence following this channel north as far as the fifty-sixth degree of north latitude; thence following the line of the coast to the intersection of the 141 degree of west longitude. Nowhere along the coast between Portland canal and Mt. St. Elias does there appear to be a defined range of mountains, but rather a confused jumble, having no regularity of course or bearing any relation to each other, and the noble peak, Mt. St. Elias, that defines the boundary between the British possessions and our territory at the 141 degree of west longitude, stands solitary and alone in its awe inspiring magnificence.

By reference to the map, it will be observed that in taking Portland canal as the eastern limit, an *eastward* course must be followed from the southernmost point of Prince of Wales Island, in order to reach said canal. It will also be noted, that from the extreme northern limit of Portland canal, to the nearest salt water—that of Walker cove, an arm of Behm canal—it is about thirty-four miles. It is therefore fair to presume that in taking the canal for a boundary, it was with a view of measuring from the inland waters, and not the main channels. It is also worthy of note, that, if it was not intended to take this canal for the eastern boundary, it would not have been necessary to have mentioned it in the treaty, and the simple reference, *due north*, would have been all that was necessary to convey the intent.

It is also claimed by the British, that this canal could not have been intended, because it does not extend to the 56 degree. It is true that it does not reach that point by about one mile, but if it were five or even ten miles shorter, it would not be any stronger argument for the other side, for, in the language of the treaty, "the same line shall ascend to the north along the channel called Portland channel as far as the point of the continent where *it* strikes the 56 degree," the *line* is what is intended should strike the 56 degree, and not the *channel*. Should, then, the claim of Great Britain be finally allowed, she will acquire a

strip of country seventy-five by one hundred miles in extent between Portland and Behm canals, which rightfully belongs to the United States.

While stress is laid upon the encroachments that this boundary line of the British would make upon our eastern coast, it cannot be too clearly demonstrated, that where their boundary line deflects westward at about 58 degrees, forty minutes north, and thence follows to the 136 degree of west longitude, and there takes a southwesterly course to Mt. St. Elias, is to be found a strip of coast territory upon which the natural greed of England has particularly set its eye.

This coast land furnishes the outlet to the great interior of Alaska, and it is the only available entrance to its immense gold fields. Ever since the interior country has presented a field for the gold prospector, miners have gone over the mountains from the head of Lynn canal, and when the time comes, as it surely will, within the next few years, to construct a railroad into the valley of the Yukon, and on to Bering sea; our government must not lose sight of the fact that the contour of the country will cause it to start from the head of Lynn canal, in an overland route, where no abrupt mountains obstruct the way.

The British claim to this one hundred square miles of territory would also include Glacier Bay, the most wonderful body of water in the world. It is about twenty miles wide by forty long. Ten other glaciers beside the celebrated Muir glacier pour their huge bodies into this magnificent bay, and then move on through channels many fathoms deep out into the sea. Snow-clad mountains with their deep ravines, moraines and mountainous gorges fringe the bay on all sides, and help to form one of the most enchanting and delightful spots that the imagination can conceive.

It is well known that a foreign ship cannot land passengers on American soil without conforming to certain laws, and as long as Glacier Bay is in United States territory, British ships cannot transport tourists traveling over Canadian roads and land them in this bay. Neither can foreign ships discharge foreign goods in American territory without observing certain customs regulations. But if the English should acquire territory inside any of the inland waters of Lynn canal, or Taku inlet, twelve miles south of Juneau, they could establish stations, construct trails or wagon routes into the interior, and it is safe to say would control the trade of that region.

Thus it is clearly apparent that many reasons which do not appear on the surface, besides the mere desire to acquire a strip of land, cause England to push her claim to a settlement of the boundary question in her favor.

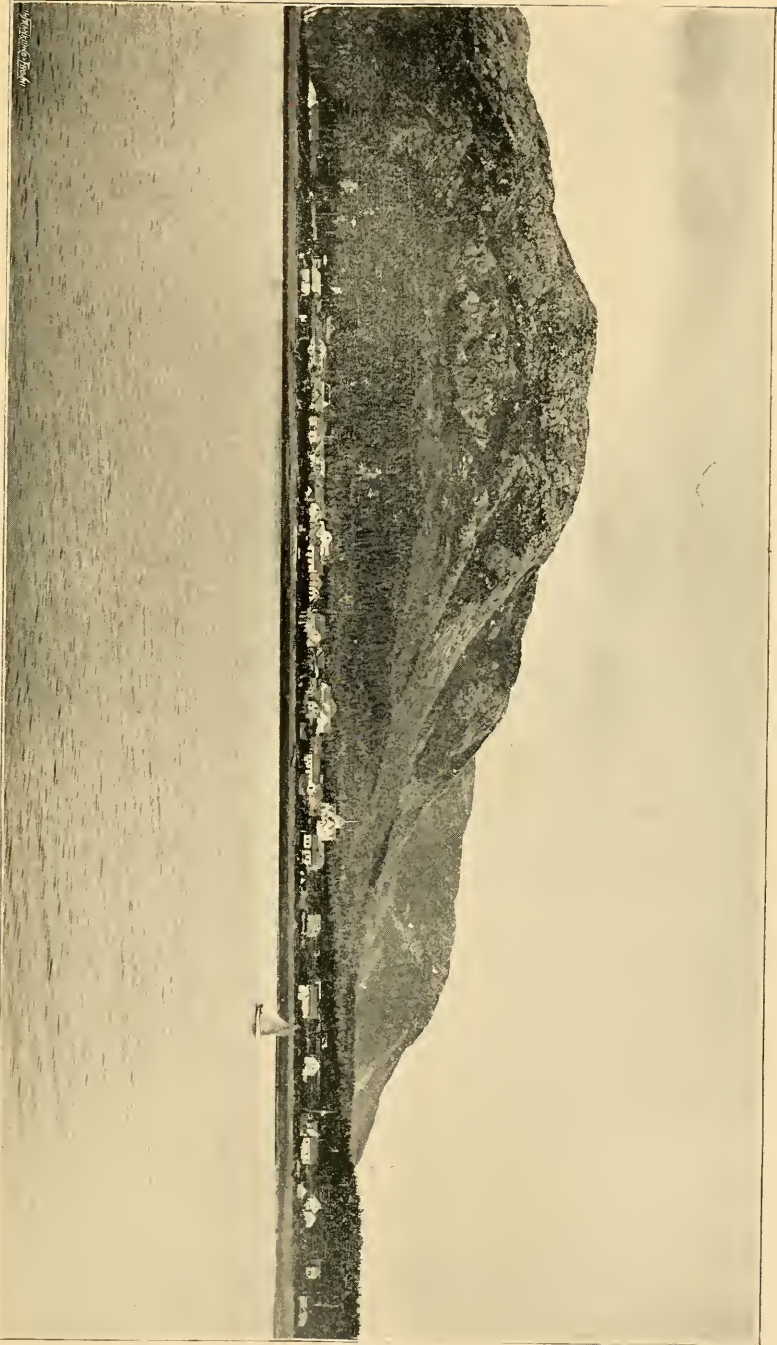
Should the gold fields of the interior develop to the extent anticipated, a large emigration is sure to come hither, and in its wake will follow the growth of mining and other resources, and commerce will reach vast proportions.

The point sought to have been reached during our controversy with England over the northern boundary of the then territory of Oregon, which gave rise to the cry "fifty-four forty or fight," is the point where our Alaskan possessions begin, and had Alaska, at that time been ours, we might not have weakly receded from our position, and the stretch of country which to-day lies between the State of Washington and Alaska, might furnish the missing link in the continuous chain of our coast line from Lower California to the frozen ocean.

Petty and unworthy of the grandeur of a nation upon whose empire the sun never sets, may seem the narrative which we now desire to present, as another of the many reasons why England is seeking to make good her claim to this territory. Little things have 'ere this made the great covetous.

Some thirty-eight years ago, a young Englishman named William Duncan landed at Fort Simpson, about seven miles south of the Alaskan boundary. He came alone, knowing nothing of the people among whom he was about to cast his lot, but at the early age of twenty-one, solemnly dedicated his life to the cause of raising from barbarism a race, whose frequent acts of cannibalism stamped them as among the most savage people on the face of the earth.

Fort Simpson was, for many years, one of the most important trading posts of the Hudson's Bay Company. It is truly said that the number of bear skins necessary for a native to purchase a muzzle-loading rifle depended upon the number, piled one upon another, that it took to reach the muzzle of the gun, when the butt end rested on the ground. The agents of this company were safely quartered behind stockades, within which enclosure only a certain number of natives were ever admitted at one time. Yet this dauntless youth, filled with the spirit of the Master, and full of confidence in an over-ruling Providence, dwelt in a cabin, through the sides of which there were no port-holes, and within



NEW METIAKHTLA.

LaRoche Photo, Seattle, Wash.

whose walls no rifle was at hand in case of an attack from outside.

Metlakahtla was the village that Mr. Duncan established more than a third of a century ago. There eight hundred natives lived and prospered. Taught by their devoted friend, they sawed logs, built houses, canned salmon, and engaged in nearly every branch of business that would utilize the products of the country. A church edifice, that would do credit to many a larger white settlement, reared its spire heavenward, and every man, woman and child in the settlement regularly sought religious consolation there.

But a representative of the Church of England appeared among them, and insisted that that portion of the sacrament, wherein wine is administered, and which Mr. Duncan had ignored, should be observed. His reason for not carrying out this important tenet of the church, was that he had found his greatest trouble in teaching the natives to avoid intoxicating drinks; and he reasoned, that if he permitted wine at the sacrament, his people would not understand why they should not indulge in liquor, at other times.

Mr. Duncan's prejudice in this matter was so strong that he said if his course were not permitted, he would take his people, like the pilgrims of old, to some place where they could exercise religious liberty, untrammelled by church dogmas. The church ruling was insistant, and Mr. Duncan, equally determined, went to Washington, sought Mr. Cleveland and explained how the Church of England had attempted to supplant him with another minister among the people to whom he had devoted his life.

He was assured by the President that this government would offer an asylum where they could enjoy religious freedom; and promised that Congress would take action, looking to their protection. Accordingly, on March 3, 1891, a bill was passed, setting aside Annette island for the use and benefit of these natives, but immediately following his visit to Washington, and upon the strength of the promise that his people would be protected, they abandoned their improvements, and property, gave up their comfortable homes, and with only a few household goods, went out into the wilderness. On the seventh day of August, 1887, they arrived at their present home, naming it New Metlakahtla, and under the graceful folds of the stars and stripes, which they had flung to the breeze, they solemnly transferred their allegiance from Canada to the United States.

In the past seven years a settlement has been built up that bears witness of wonderful progress in civilization by these people. They live in comfortable houses, many of them handsome and homelike. Every branch of business is represented as in their old home, only in a more advanced scale, and the people are self-sustaining, industrious and happy. And age reminds Mr. Duncan that his task is nearly finished. The thirty-eight years he has spent among these natives finds them enjoying all the benefits of civilization, and in quiet possession of homes earned by honest toil. But is it any wonder that he looks into the future with sad misgivings, and in fear that the hand of his old enemy, now stretched across the boundary, and taking his settlement within British lines, will yet draw his people in its avaricious grasp?

We do not believe the American Congress can afford to stultify itself by yielding one jot from the position it has taken in this matter to Mr. Duncan, and to which it solemnly stands committed. That it is clearly the intention of the Canadian government backed by England to secure this strip of territory, is unmistakable. For the past two years the labors of the Canadian boundary commission have been marked by a determination to obtain all possible information concerning the disputed territory. Government engineers and surveyors have been indefatigable in their explorations to secure in detail thorough and exhaustive knowledge, which will be placed before the joint commission when the boundary question comes up for adjudication next November. There is no doubt that the Canadian government will make out the strongest possible case, and in this it will be aided by the intimate knowledge of the country gained by the actual investigation of their engineers. But it seems to us that a correct interpretation of the treaty of 1825, coupled with a firm presentation of our case, should leave the British claim without any support whatever, and with such vigorous assertion of our rights, Alaska will not be despoiled of a valuable portion of her heritage.

TABLE OF DISTANCES.

	Nautical Miles.		Nautical Miles.
San Francisco to Seattle.....	820	Juneau to Ty-a	100
San Francisco to Sitka (outside)....	1295	Chilcat to Glacier Bay.....	146
San Francisco to Unalaska (outside) ..	2040	Glacier Bay to Sitka.....	158
Seattle to Juneau.....	976	Juneau to Sitka.....	185
Seattle to Port Townsend	38	Sitka to Killisnoo.....	72
Port Townsend to Victoria.....	32	Sitka to Hot Springs	15
Victoria to Nanaimo	76	Sitka to Yakutat.....	210
Nanaimo to Seymour Narrows	80	Sitka to Nuchek	440
Seymour Narrows to Mary Island....	455	Sitka to Kadiak.....	560
Mary Island to Ketchikan	40	Sitka to Karluk.....	628
Ketchikan to New Metlakatla	16	Sitka to Unga.....	888
Ketchikan to Loring	25	Sitka to Sand Point	882
Loring to Yaas Bay	19	Sitka to Belkoffsky.....	942
Loring to Wrangel.....	90	Sitka to Unalaska	1250
Wrangel to Wrangel Narrows.....	32	Unalaska to Seal Islands.....	220
Wrangel Narrows to Juneau	96	Unalaska to St. Michael's.....	745
Juneau to Treadwell Mill.....	2½	Unalaska to Bering Strait.....	820
Juneau to Berner's Bay	46	Bering Strait to Point Barrow.....	540
Juneau to Chilcat	90		

TABLE OF DISTANCES FROM TY-A, HEAD OF STEAMBOAT NAVIGATION,
TO FT. CUDAHY.

	Miles.
Ty-a to head of Canoe Navigation	6
Head of Canoe Navigation to Summit Chilkoot Pass.....	9
Summit to head of Lake Linderman.....	8½
Head Lake Linderman to foot	6
River or Portage to head of Lake Bennett	1
Head of Lake Bennett to foot	24
Through Cariboo Crossing to head of Tagish Lake.....	2
Head of Tagish Lake to foot	19
Through River to head of Lake Marsh.....	6
Head of Lake Marsh to foot	19
Foot of Lake Marsh to Canyon.....	25
Through Canyon	¾
Foot of Canyon to White Horse Rapids.....	2
Through White Horse Rapids.....	½
Foot of White Horse Rapids to Tahkeena River.....	16
Tahkeena River to head of Lake Le Barge.....	14
Head of Lake Le Barge to foot	31
Foot of Lake Le Barge to Hootalinqua River	30
Hootalinqua River to Big Salmon River	34
Big Salmon River to Little Salmon River.....	37
Little Salmon River to Five Fingers	62
Five Fingers to Rink Rapids	6½
Rink Rapids to Pelly River.....	55
Pelly River to White River	97
White River to Stewart River	9
Stewart River to Sixty Mile River.....	21
Sixty Mile River to Fort Reliance	53
Fort Reliance to Forty Mile	48
Forty Mile to Ft. Cudahy	¾
Ty-a to Ft Cudahy	643

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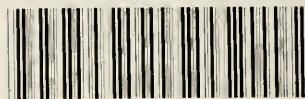
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